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MAY, 1954 VOLUME 136 NUMBER 8

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AMERICA'S OLDEST MAGAZINE FOR EDUCATORS

*THIS issue of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION marks the end of the first year of its publication by Boston University School of Education. We hope that the magazine has had a real part in the improvement of classroom instruction. The Subject Index for Volume* 136 *on page* 256 *indicates the scope of the articles which have been published. The reception of the new JOURNAL has been most heartening. Word of mouth recommendation has increased the subscription list. We have found that publication of a magazine is a real business and we hope that you have been aware of continued improvement as our "know-how" increased. The office staff and Editorial Board will be busy during the summer months planning and preparing for Volume* 137 *which will begin in October.*

W. Linwood Chase

DEAN, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
BOSTON UNIVERSITY

# JOURNAL of EDUCATION

**Volume 136** **May 1954** **Number 8**

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# CAN TEACHERS SERVE AS COUNSELORS?

**Walter M. Lifton**

Teachers are constantly being faced with youngsters needing help. In the past the roles of the teacher and of the counselor have frequently been seen as identical. It is the purpose of this article to present a description of the counseling process. In this way it may be possible for the reader to more clearly perceive the points of similarity and difference between the teaching and the counseling situation.

One of the basic rules in counseling is that the person requiring help needs to be *anxious* about his problem but *secure* in the counseling situation. Both conditions are necessary for counseling to be successful. The following example may help clarify how this might occur in a school.

Johnny has been referred to a counselor because he has been a disturbing influence in Miss Brown's class. Johnny is quite happy about all this fuss. Down deep he knows that when people fuss over you it means they really know you exist and care about you. Johnny is sure his parents never seem to care if he is living or dead. As far as Johnny is concerned, rather than being worried about his behavior, he feels somewhat pleased that he has found a way to get some recognition and attention in life. At this point the problem and concern is society's. Johnny is not yet a client. He presents a rather familiar school problem. Let's see how counseling might work to help him.

Johnny has to be helped to discover what it is he is seeking so that he can consider other ways of obtaining satisfaction. The counselor does this in several ways. He tries to help Johnny see the problem. He provides support and information as Johnny thinks about new ways of dealing with old problems. He encourages Johnny to talk about the situation. Words are a very important part of the counseling process. As we attempt to express that of which we are dimly aware, our attempts to put into words our ideas forces us to clarify the meaning of a situation to ourselves. Have you ever said to a friend "What I'm trying to say is this -ah-ah, No, I haven't said it clearly, let me try again"—and while you redefine your idea, you discover it has become clearer to you, too. Clearer not only in itself, but also in terms of what you then realize it may mean. Johnny will talk only if he feels this counseling is for him—and that this is unlike the court setting, where everything he says will be held against him.

If counseling were only talk, the job would be simple indeed. Actually, however, each of us talks out of two sides of his mouth at once. We express the content of our ideas in words which we hope are understood by our hearers. This represents the manifest level of speech. At the same time we recognize that it isn't what a person says that is important, but rather what he is trying to say. It is this second latent level which the counselor must be able to recognize.

A client recently said, "I can't make up my mind about college. Dad would like me to go, and sometimes I want to also. If I got a job right now, Sally and I could be married. I don't want to be a school boy all my life."

What was he saying? The content is clear but what were the feelings underneath? Were they:

"Making a decision is hard." or

"Dad and I don't always see things the same", or was he saying,

"I can't be an adult and go to school."

As counselors we can help the client to hear these undertones by verbally repeating what we believe he is trying to say. The counselor may also employ these underlying feelings in an effort to better understand his client.

The counselor's job is to serve as a mirror through which the client can more clearly see himself. The mirror, however, does not just reflect the total picture. It is slightly curved so that it brings all the reflections to a point—and this point represents the gist of what the client is *trying* to say. His basic underlying feeling or need which he has to recognize.

Using this analogy of the mirror one step further, it should be pointed out that the image a mirror reflects and defines comes from the object itself and is *not* the creation of the mirror.

### The Counselor's Problems

One of the hardest jobs for a beginning counselor is to recognize that what makes sense to him may not carry the same logic to the client. The counselor who interprets to a client the causes for his behavior may have made a correct diagnosis. He has overlooked several major facts, however. Many of us feel we recognize behavior in ourselves which we seek to change. To change behavior we need to find other ways of satisfying our needs. To do this may require information about alternate techniques *and* sufficient practice in this new way to feel secure enough to use it under stress. Whether Johnny feels secure enough with the counselor depends not only on the counselor's skill but also on the job the counselor has been

*In addition to his duties as Associate Professor of Education in the College of Education, University of Illinois, Dr. Lifton finds time to write articles on personnel and guidance. From 1942-46 he was a Classification Specialist and personnel technician in the U. S. Army. He taught during the summer of 1953 at Boston University. He finds time to enjoy his family and participate in community and church activities.*

given to do. It is vital that the counselor's job be one that is understood by all concerned and that the counselor's duties do not conflict with other responsibilities he may be given. This confusion of roles is particularly important when we look at most of the counseling that goes on today in the schools.

Johnny to be secure enough to face his problems must know what counseling is, how it works, what he can expect from the counselor, and what his role will be in the counseling situation. For a counselor to provide Johnny with this kind of security, he must be able to clearly answer each of these questions.

Many counselors in schools serve in other jobs too. Johnny gets all mixed up. He says: "In class Mr. Smith tells me he can't spend so much time with me cause there are others in the class. Now he tells me these sessions are for me and me only. Which is right."—and he says —"In class when I can't get things straight, I get lower marks, but now he tells me that this is the place where I can feel free to talk about all my ideas—good, bad, or mixed up—I don't understand"—or he may say—"When Mr. Green, our principal, addressed us in the auditorium he said he was the person responsible to society to see we obeyed the laws. Now Mr. Green says he will not break my confidence if I tell him my troubles. I wonder what he would do if I told him about swiping Jim's tennis racket the other day."

These few examples are presented to illustrate that the counselor cannot help Johnny feel secure, until the counselor himself knows what he can and cannot do in the counseling situation. The philosophy of the school, the counselor's own concept of himself, the counselor's needs, all enter into how clearly he can answer Johnny's questions.


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Security in counseling also comes from knowing where you stand in terms of reality. Counseling is a two way process. While the counselor is trying to help the client, the client is using the counseling situation to test his perceptions of how people react to him. The client is more affected by what the counselor does than by what the counselor says he will do.

From time to time we hear people say that the janitor at their school, the bus driver, or the guy who lives in the shanty at the end of town represents the person who appears to be giving their youngsters some real counseling help. When we question why these folks are seen as helpful we get answers like:

"I feel he doesn't feel better than me. He doesn't act as if he had all the answers or that my ideas aren't worth very much." OR

"He seems to really like me. It isn't his *job* to talk to me, but he always is interested in what I'm trying to figure out."

The primary source of help seems to be coming from the fact that these people, living and working in less prestige laden settings, are seen as more accepting of people as they are, less judgmental of what they ought to be, and generally are perceived by the people they help as warm, interested and permissive. Each of these attitudes are certainly basic to counseling, but just as talk alone doesn't solve problems, so the counselor's attitude *alone* is not the cure-all. If teachers are to serve as counselors, their present social status in the community and their evaluative function in the classroom, certainly will need to be considered.

Security in the counseling situation depends upon feeling that the counselor really believes we are a person of worth, and will not think less of us no matter what negative things (as we see them) we reveal about ourselves. To introduce that kind of security where people can afford to look at themselves and perceive their most negative aspects, we must inspect the job we are defining for the counselor, and the counselor's own needs which enable him to accept his clients as they are, rather than to re-fashion his clients in his own image.

When teachers in a school do not understand counseling or accept its usefulness, the effectiveness of the program is severely retarded.

Compare the following two teachers who are referring a youngster to a counselor. Both ask to see Johnny privately, for they realize that discussing Johnny's problems before the entire class may destroy his confidence and his relationship with his peers. Miss Brown says, "Johnny," you've been giving me nothing but trouble. I am sending you down to the counselor so he can straighten you out." Miss Smith says, "Johnny, I have had to scold you quite a bit lately. This makes me unhappy and you aren't having the fun in this class that is possible. Sometimes when we have a chance to look at what is happening we can figure out better ways of doing things. I would like you to visit the counselor. He may be able to help you come to some answers as to how to stay out of trouble and have more fun." Miss Brown is suggesting the counseling as punishment, and as a place where people do mysterious things to you to straighten you out. Miss Smith is trying to help Johnny see that he has something he ought to take a look at. She is defining counseling as a place where people get help to come to their own decisions. The way the teachers interpret counseling will affect Johnny's willingness to use the counselor.

In one of the early stages of counseling the client who has never allowed himself to express any of his feelings

may respond by swinging to the opposite extreme by testing peoples' reaction to him when he sounds off. This may reflect itself in class by an increase in anti-social behavior, by expressed hostility, and from society's standard, an increase in unacceptable attitudes. Realizing that the client while trying to change his old behavior will try other approaches, enables the teacher to help by giving the client support, while at the same time consistently maintaining the limits that society demands. Only if teachers see this intermediate step as normal and indicative of the client's progress toward more adequate adjustment, can they have any desire to accept the increased strain they may experience in class in the interim.

Having a permissive attitude is frequently confused with allowing people complete freedom. Security comes from knowing that one has freedom to try ideas. It also comes from knowing what is not allowable. The goal is to set the limits of behavior in such a fashion that they represent the realistic demands of society—not the counselor's demands. Limits need to be broad enough to enable individual differences in seeking gratification of needs.

When Johnny finally gets to the counselor he is interested in testing for himself if the counselor actually acts as people say. He watches carefully to see if the counselor is interested, is permissive, and will really give him a chance to explore his own ideas. Imagine, for example, that you are a client. The counselor tells you he wants you to see him as an equal and that you are to feel free to use this time to get help in solving problems you are concerned about. When the session starts you, as a client, discover that every time you start talking, the counselor interrupts. The areas you want to talk about are ignored and questions asked about other things. He uses words you do not understand and tells you what you ought to do.

This is an example of a very poor counselor. The client soon discovers that his needs will be recognized by the counselor only when the counselor also sees them as important. In a real sense the client is learning dishonesty.

The counselor helps a client by proving that reality is always real. To do this it is vital that the counselor live up to the commitments he makes to the client. For example, if a client is told he will have a 30 minute counseling session, the client in attempting to prove that he can manipulate reality to suit him, may save up the juiciest material for the last few minutes of the session, as a way of bribing the counselor to give him more than his allotted time. The counselor who keeps his stated time limit soon discovers that in subsequent sessions the clients talk about important things during the whole session, since they want help and their previous tactic didn't work.

### The Teacher's Approach

Probably the most important idea that can be presented is that counseling is not learned by mastering techniques. Tools in counseling such as tests, the use of silence, catharsis, etc., have no inherent value or power in themselves. The value and effect of these tools come from the user. Just as a good saw does not guarantee a well built house, requiring a skillful carpenter for results, so counseling tools reflect the needs and personality of the counselor.

When as counselors we enter the counseling room, we are not suddenly transformed into objective robots devoid of personal needs. The gratification we seek for ourselves will determine how we will relate to our clients. Our use of the counseling tools will demonstrate these needs.

Suppose we take the use of silence as an illustration. Have you ever gone into a busy person's office seeking help? As you find yourself groping for words, he sits quietly silent giving you the time you need to say things in your own way. In such a setting we see silence and time as a precious gift.

Let's compare this with a classroom situation where Johnny is called on to recite. Johnny freezes, he can't remember his lesson. The teacher says, "*I want the answer right this minute.*" Every horrible second of silence that follows this statement increases the anxiety experienced. In both cases we had silence used. The difference came from the meaning given it by the user.

In addition to the ideas stated thus far, successful counseling begins at the point where the client sees his need. To put it in another way, the counselor will only be used by the client when he sees that he is being helped by the procedure. Although the counselor may perceive the existence of numerous problems facing the client, the counselor is most likely to be effective if he starts working with the client in an area where the client wants help.

Many of the tools available to the counselor are designed to help provide information about the client. Although much of the information a counselor can obtain about a client may help him better understand the client, basically the most crucial information is that which the client himself can use.

It is in the process of providing a client with information that the counselor needs skill. It is also here where confusion with the teacher's role is greatest. If as a counselor we use our own judgment as to why a person does something, or if we attempt to predict the client's future actions or success, we really are out on a limb. A counselor's interpretation or advice carries with it not only the burden of the effects on the client of these opinions, but more drastically carries with it the possible seeds which can destroy the counseling relationship.

### The Dangers of Advice

Suppose we see how this comes to be. Johnny is having trouble making a decision about his future plans. He figures the counselor ought to know the answer, so he asks the counselor's advice. If the counselor gives his opinion, several results are possible. In all cases Johnny can be relieved of feeling solely responsible for his decision —and as such he is not as concerned about making good. If he fails Johnny may say—"This wasn't my idea in the first place, the counselor told me."

Suppose, however, that Johnny does not agree with the advice he is being given. When he seeks help, and then rejects what is offered, it is easy for him to feel guilty about his actions and not to feel as free to see the counselor at some future date. On the other hand, if Johnny takes the proffered advice, but doesn't basically agree with it, he begins to wonder what kind of an oaf he is, to do whatever anyone tells him even when he cannot believe or understand it. He then begins to resent the person who can so manipulate his actions. The counselor who offers information rather than advice is seen as a truly helpful person. The major difference between information and advice comes from the fact that information represents facts the client needs to implement a decision he is prepared to assume responsibility for.

The client who asks "What do you think I ought to be?" is asking advice. The client who asks "Can you help me locate the medical schools which I may be eligible to enter?" is requesting help to solve his own problem.

This article has rather purposefully explored the

dangers and implications of advice giving. This has been one of the primary tools used by laymen. The theory behind it seemed to be that if one was interested in helping another and had managed to live more years than the other person, then he is by these facts quite qualified to make judgments as to how others ought to live.

Age does carry with it the possibilities of a wider range of experience and a large accumulation of information. These possibilities, however, are dependent upon how much a person obtains from his experience. It is possible to see but not perceive, to experience and not to feel.

As we grow we develop ways of adjusting to our life. Many of these defense mechanisms we employ to shut out from our awareness the areas and sensations we are unable to face. The boiler maker doesn't hear the noise, and the youngster doesn't hear his mother calling. We convince ourselves that many people are inferior to us because, if they are made of lesser metal, we become something of worth. Layer by layer we protect ourselves so that we let filter through only those sights we can stand viewing, and those feelings we can endure.

As human beings then, all of us imperfect, we then try to help the other fellow. A client tells us about a situation that concerns him. As counselors we listen and may perceive in the client's talk the same difficulty we ourselves are facing. What happens to the counselor at this point has nothing to do with his age or range of experience.

To the degree that the counselor is unaware of his own difficulties, he may tend to work out his problems by trying to tell the client to do the things he the counselor unconsciously would like to do to solve his own problems. As the counselor identifies with the client, and thereby loses his own identity, we suddenly find two clients each reinforcing the other's anxiety and concern.

Considerable research has shown that we can perceive in others only what we dare perceive in ourselves. We can accept in others only what we can accept in ourselves. As we become aware of the areas in our own lives where we are covering up, we can begin to more objectively recognize the difference between our concerns and those presented by a client. As we are able to objectify the counseling situation, we improve in our ability to hear what the client is trying to say, and to understand the feelings he is experiencing.

The future of counseling in our schools is basically dependent upon securing people who can serve as counselors in more than name only. While what the counselor needs to know to be able to counsel is pretty well crystallized, there is great need to define the training and settings where counselors will work. In this job the school and the counselor trainers might well work together.

# COMMENTS ON WRITING

**Ruth Thompson**

Casting about for a way to encourage some children whose progress was slow, I decided to appoint two committees of three members each. The job of each child was to make one capital letter well. I thought it would be practical for the child to use a capital letter from his own name. I met with the committees at a recess period. They practiced until they had mastered the art of making their particular letter. By telling Gerald to swing out at the bottom, he was soon able to demonstrate a capital *G*. The children were to tell how to make the letters as they wrote them. The telling was harder than the making, but I wanted them to talk before the group.

The effect of this procedure upon the other members of the class was electrifying. Children who were bored when I demonstrated how their writing might be improved craned their necks to see how another child might be doing. This interest never waned. The problem that arose was that everyone wanted to be on the committees.

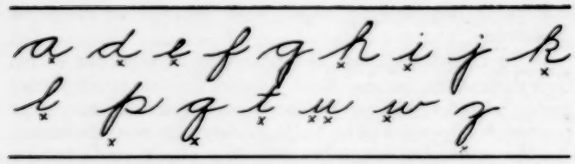
The children who had been put on the original committees had been changing lessons I put on the board in cursive writing to print when they did the lessons. After being on a committee, they began trying to do cursive writing from looking at my writing, using print only for the word they found in their book for filling in the blanks. I believe that participation was the factor that encouraged these children to strive to do more for themselves.

I have found that an analysis of cursive writing by both the teacher and the child is a contribution to the methods of teaching and correcting the mistakes made in cursive writing. By finding a simple way in which the children could help with the teaching, the emotional blocks hampering some of them were removed. The interest aroused and sustained was motivating; and the children participated in democratic living.

Children can master the art of cursive writing in half a year. They can do beautiful writing on the board. It is easy to teach some of them. Others present a challenge to the teacher that she may utilize to aid in the development of the child.

In the following examples, the checks indicate places where stops are made.

*In conjunction with her work as second grade teacher in the Ross Township, (Ind.) schools, Mrs. Thompson finds her research work in child adjustment problems stimulating. New techniques she applies to her classroom children to help bring about better adjustments.*



The first three years I taught I worked under a very excellent supervisor who came into my room every four or five weeks and taught a lesson. The examples of handwriting she quickly put on the board were a work of art. She showed the children how to get good slant, good letter formation, and how to sit properly in their seats. During that period it was thought that the way to get children to do good writing was for them to always see good examples. The school system in which I then worked no longer has a writing supervisor; the county schools never at any time had such services; and the college which now gives four years of training to all elementary teachers before they can teach no longer gives any training in the teaching of writing.

I believe this lack of emphasis in teacher training is sometimes reflected in the elementary schools. A friend of mine whose son is ready for the fourth grade is concerned because he is still printing. His third grade teacher, a beginner, had told the children they could print or write, whichever they preferred. She did not make much of an attempt to teach cursive writing until the end of the year when some pressure was put upon her by the child's mother.

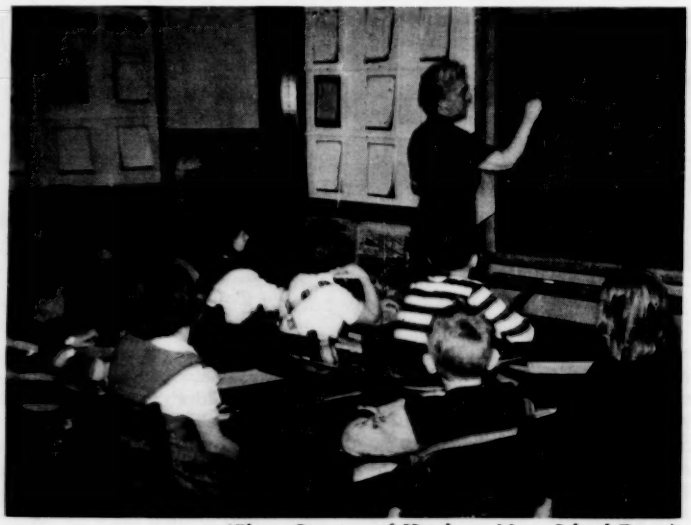
To write well the child must achieve good slant, good letter formation, and uniform spacing between letters. Good demonstrations on the part of the teacher are sufficient for teaching some children. Analysis is valuable in teaching and in correcting errors. Cursive writing combines the use of curved lines and straight ones. It is helpful to call the child's attention to which lines should be straight and which ones should be curved.

Lack of attention to slant is often the cause of poor letter formation. Finding that good examples and demonstrations are not sufficient to achieve good performance on the part of some children, I have tried illustrating good and poor slant on the black-board. Children always laugh when I slant letters incorrectly, but see nothing funny when they make letters go in all directions.

The most effective means that I have found for helping children to acquire good slant was through the formation and application of a rule. In making the first stroke of a small letter, move to the right; in making the second stroke, move to the left. This rule will apply to *a* and *c* if they are begun with an over-stroke. I like to begin with the letter *l*. The first step is to make a curve to the right; the second step is to make a line back to the left. From here it is easy to make a good *e*, *f*, and several other letters beginning in the same way. Children are amused when I tell them that an *e* should always have its eye open and that an *f* should always have a straight back. A common mistake in making an *f* is in failing to make the second stroke a straight line.

Children often have difficulties with letters that have to be traced such as *g*, *d*, *h*, *i*, *k*, *t*. I sometimes see them write in the wrong direction in order to avoid tracing. The top of the *s* and *r* is often omitted rather than do the tracing required. It sometimes helps to have the child tell what he should do as he makes a letter.

In my school the board is green with green and yellow lines painted on it, corresponding to the lines in the primary tablets. These lines enable the children to do very creditable work at the board. I like to send ten or twelve children to the board at a time, as I can see what difficulties they are having, and they are often helped by watching each other.



(Photo Courtesy of Hingham, Mass. School Dept.)

**Children's Attitudes and Emotions**

The teacher's task is not finished, however, when she has devised good methods. She still has to deal with the attitudes and emotions of the child. She may have children who do not function well or who do not cooperate.

Jerry was such a child. He was the only child coming from the first grade whose printing was not satisfactory. He was left-handed which added to his handicap. At first I thought his trouble was due to poor coordination. Hoping to help him, I kept him in after school, first asking him if he were willing to stay. I started him doing cursive writing two months before starting the other children. I found Jerry made unnecessary movements with his elbow, which greatly contributed to his poor writing. By eliminating

*(Continued on Page 254)*

# TELEVISION–A REVOLUTION IN EDUCATION

**David E. Place**

Legislation to build a one-room schoolroom onto each and every home in America! What would you and I think of our Federal and State Governments if they combined in an effort, costing us three hundred million dollars, to give us each our own $5,000 red school house?

June 2, 1953, heralded the reservation by the Federal Communications Commission of 242 grade-A television channels all across America for first-rate entertainment and unique educational television . . . daly productions for sixty million homes. No, your government will not have to spend that three hundred million dollars, and the carpenters won't be hammering and sawing a new addition onto your home tomorrow, and actors and props alternating with excellent teachers won't be arriving to fill your new room all hours of the day and night.

Twenty-five years ago the United States was faced with the policy-making decisions that long-wave radio presented to the authorities in control of all broadcasting franchises. Those authorities, the Federal Communications Commission, soon found that in any particular area of the country the air waves had room for just so many stations and no more. They were faced with a spectrum which had to be respected meticulously, else one station would find its signal blurred into the signal of its neighbor station on that spectrum just as yellow changes into red in every rainbow. The power to grant radio broadcast franchises, therefore, became the key to control in the development of radio broadcasting. Applicants for the AM band locations were many and the locations were few.

In the midst of scramble, pressure, lobbying, and pursuit of these radio franchises, educators and other thoughtful people became seriously concerned with where quality in the way of stimulating entertainment and substantive education stood in the picture. The commercial applicants protested that they would, in the public interest, devote a large part of their programming to worthwhile affairs, no matter what their advertising appeal. The educators' battle, the battle too of the hopeful listener for top theatrical and musical productions, was lost.

The record over the past twenty-five years has proven that a private individual should not expect from a business corporation efforts which result in a financial loss to the corporation's owners, no matter how estimable its efforts. Were the commercial operators to program primarily for small, special-interest audiences, the sponsors would evaporate and the flow of capital to radio station operators would abruptly cease. The commercial stations have genuinely tried to carry educational, adult, and extension-course programs, but have had to relegate them to times such as 11 P. M. and 11 A. M.

*History does not have to repeat itself.* For the present Federal Communications Commissions, this is the battle cry. The Commission made the fundamental decision, after about three years of hearings, to set aside at least a few of the available television channels for exclusively non-profit educational programs.

The radio spectrum, the FCC found, was a short one in the 1920's but not nearly as short as the television spectrum with which the FCC was faced in the 1950's. A typical city such as Boston can technically carry perhaps twenty AM stations, but six, no more, is Boston's maximum number of very-high-frequency television stations.

The FCC reserved these 242 television channels for a limited period of time. If no applicant, private charitable foundation, college, high school, or group of them, state educational authority, or the like came forward to build and operate a particular reserved channel, after a reasonable time had elapsed, the FCC felt itself bound to make it available to commercial users.

Four years ago the heads of America's colleges, secondary schools and other cultural institutions formed the National Citizens Committee for Educational Television. They vowed, "these land grants in the sky" must not be lost, and they elected as chairman Dr. Milton Eisenhower. This committee is helping groups of interested citizens all over the country to move forward in their efforts to raise money and apply for their own reserved channel. Today a few of these channels are already operating and tomorrow *many* will be–for their construction is under way.

The National Citizens Committee for Educational Television reports that, "In more than eighty communities–of various sizes and scattered throughout the United States –citizens are engaged in planning for an educational television station."

The Committee reports further that two stations are on the air. Houston, Texas, has been telecasting since May 25, 1953, and Los Angeles, California, will be on the air shortly. Among the seven stations reported to be at some stage of construction is station WGBH which will operate a Boston station over Channel 2. It is expected that Channel 2 will be on the air in the fall of 1954, should all go well with the organizing and fund raising currently being done. The other six stations are: San Francisco, California; Denver, Colorado; East Lansing, Michigan; St. Louis, Missouri; Pittsburgh, Pa.; and Columbus, South Carolina.

An automobile's progress, its movement forward, depends upon three different gears. In this planet's development, we find:

Low gear–the A-Z alphabet: civilization's foundation for communication and education.

Second gear–the printing press: the means by which the world sped to the literacy and culture of 1950.

*Mr. Place, by profession an Assistant United States Attorney in the District of Massachusetts, is currently Chairman of the Greater Boston Committee on Educational Television, and Director of the Mass. Citizens' Committee on Educational Television. From these consuming duties, he finds time to enjoy his family and cruising off the Massachusetts coast.*

High gear—Television: the viewing in every home, of the best in music, literature, the other arts presented by the great teachers, actors and musicians.

Educational television today in the United States has passed the crossroads. Let us look quickly at two distant corners of our country, Boston, Massachusetts and Houston, Texas.

Around Boston one million two hundred thousand television sets are now in operation. Channel 2, the educational channel reserved for Massachusetts, from atop Mt. Blue Hill in Milton, will reach, 85 per cent of the population of Massachusetts. We of Massachusetts look to a chance for everyone whether babe, teen-ager or octogenarian—to enjoy some part of Channel 2's weekly program schedule. Second-rate theatre productions, second-rate children's entertainment, second-rate chemistry lectures and second-rate musical programs—none of these will last long on Channel 2, for its management realizes what the citizens expect. To help insure the best, The Ford Foundation for Adult Education has agreed to spend annually one and a half million dollars this year, next year, and the year after, simply to provide a "blood bank" in Chicago of top-notch films for programs of high quality for education and entertainment. Areas such as Texas and Massachusetts intend to produce top-notch filmed programs for their own use and the use of the entire country's channels. The programs will run from how to make slip covers or dresses, budget the household expenses, or administer first aid, to athletic events for youngsters and attractive presentations of great plays and stories for children, grade-A theatrical productions and music and art for adults; plus more specific vocational lectures by leading teachers in innumerable fields: the ninety-odd elements, underwater life, the workings of jet airplanes, travel in India and so on, and so on, and so on.

**Specifically, what is Boston up to?**

As a result of an application filed last June, Channel 2 reserved for Boston will be operated by the WGBH Educational Foundation, now operating a non-commercial FM radio station. It will have the advice and support of the Lowell Institute Cooperative Broadcasting Council which includes: Boston College, Boston University, Harvard University, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Northeastern University, Tufts College, Boston Symphony Orchestra, Lowell Institute, Museum of Fine Arts, New England Conservatory of Music. The application to the FCC calls for a 55,000-watt transmitter house and antenna on top of Great Blue Hill in Milton—the highest point of land in Eastern Massachusetts. The station will be received on all televison sets within a 50- to 60-mile radius of the transmitter.

Assisting and supporting WGBH is the Massachusetts Committee for Educational Television, made up of 38 civic and educational institutions. The chairman of this committee is Hon. Lawrence G. Brooks of the Malden District Court. Members of this committee include: American Association of University Women; American Legion—Department of Massachusetts; Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith; Archdiocese of Boston, Department of Education; Boston Center for Adult Education; Boston Public Library; Brandeis University; Massachusetts Congress of Parents and Teachers; Massachusetts Council for Public Schools; Massachusetts State Federation of Women's Clubs; United Community Services of Greater Boston. This Committee organized a drive for funds which took place in February and March of 1954. Dr. Claude M. Fuess, headmaster emeritus of Phillips-Andover Academy, headed the fund drive. The goal of the campaign was $1,053,000 of which $600,000 was contributed by the Twentieth Century Fund, The Lincoln and Therese Filene Foundation, Inc., The Filene Fund, and The Fund for Adult Education.

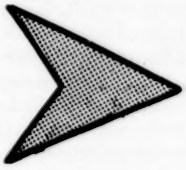
Boston is a good example of the idea that educational television is not only an educational revolution, but also a community venture, with an appeal to *all*.

In Houston's KUHT, Dr. W. R. G. Baker, Vice President of General Electric Corporation, sees an example of what unlimited value educational television will be in improving the lot of every citizen of the world to whom it becomes available. Here are some of his remarks, which reveal that his own corporation also has a real stake in the future of these 242 channels.

"Let's look at the initial experiment of Station KUHT at Houston, first of the non-commercial educational stations to go on the air. I have no knowledge of how well produced, nor how sugar-coated the program was, but KUHT presented a study course in elementary psychology and discovered that the average audience for this program, broadcast five nights a week at 8 p. m., was between eight and ten thousand persons.

"To be frank about it, this is not an amazing figure when we consider that some commercial programs will draw as much as 36 per cent of the set-owning public in any one city.

*(Continued on page 248)*



# PHONICS AND SPELLING

**Ernest Horn**

English spelling is notoriously unphonetic and this fact unquestionably makes it hard to learn. There are more sounds than letters. Kenyon and Knott, in their *Introduction to a Pronouncing Dictionary of American English,* list 17 vowel sounds, 5 diphthongs, and 28 consonant sounds, making a total of 50 sounds as the irreducible minimum. They also identify a number of variations and additional less common sounds.

To spell these sounds we have only 26 letters, and 3 of these — *c, q,* and *x* — are superfluous. As a consequence, a letter, either alone or in combination with other letters, must spell more than one sound. Moreover, sounds which could be consistently spelled, even with this alphabet, are spelled in many ways. For example, the short i sound as in *hit* is spelled in 22 ways in common words, and only a little more than half the time with *i*. Yet in spite of our impoverished alphabet, many words contain silent letters.

The issue, then, is not whether spelling would be easier to learn if it were made more phonetic; it pertains rather to the probability or improbability that spelling may be made appreciably more phonetic in the near future or whether, in view of its unphonetic quality, we should accept unconventional spellings as long as they communicate. With the exception of a few persistent souls, linguistic scholars hold out no hope for any marked simplification of spelling in the near future, and it seems most unlikely that the unconventional spellings of many words will become acceptable in our generation. We have no other recourse then than to improve our instructional program.

### How Much Can Phonic Instruction Help?

In view of the many difficulties which have been cited, one may, at first thought, be skeptical of the contributions which phonics can make to spelling. Recently, however, there has been a growing interest in the possibility that teaching sound-to-letter relationships might contribute to the improvement of spelling ability. Some extravagant claims have been made for the potentialities of this contribution. The fact is that we do not have adequate evidence for making a confident decision as to how much or in what way the teaching of phonics can increase efficiency in spelling instruction. The most extensive investigations have dealt with the ways in which various sounds are spelled in common words. Some evidence is also available on the sounds which cause the greatest difficulty in spelling, but there is very little evidence on the effectiveness of any given amount or kind of phonic instruction.

*Dr. Horn, until his retirement in 1952, was Professor of Education and Director of the University Elementary School at the State University (Iowa). His retirement culminated over a half century of diversified teaching experience and professional writing. He now enjoys gardening, playing golf and pursuing his hobby of collecting old books and dictionaries.*

Since any plan for teaching phonics as an aid to spelling must take into account the evidence on the consistency with which sounds are spelled, a brief review of this evidence should be useful. The summary statements which follow are based on the writer's count of the ways various sounds are spelled in the 10,000 words most often written by adults. The results were compared, however, with those secured by Moore, which were based on the analysis of a selected list of 3000 words. The results of the two investigations agree rather closely on the most frequent spelling of the various sounds. For some sounds the writer found the consistency of spelling for a given letter to be somewhat lower and for a few, considerably higher than the consistencies reported by Moore. The writer also found for certain sounds a much larger number of different spellings. These differences are due in part to the much larger number of polysyllabic words and inflected forms in the source which he used. The most important difference in the two investigations is in the interpretation of the significance of this type of evidence.

Most consonant sounds, whether simple sounds, as the *b* in *boy,* or initial blends, as the *bl* in *black,* are, with few exceptions, spelled regularly at the beginning of a word. The most important exceptions are the sounds of *f* as in *fed* and *physical, k* as in *cat* and *keep, j* as in *gem* and *jump,* and *s* as in *city* and *sit*. Aside from these exceptions, pupils, even though they have had little or no direct instructions in phonics, do not make many errors in spelling consonant sounds at the beginning of words except in the case of blends, in which the following vowel is often transposed — *turly* for *truly* and *borke* for *broke*. They have more difficulty with sounds within and at the end of words. Some sounds that are regularly spelled at the beginning of words are spelled in many other ways in other positions. For example, with very few exceptions, such as *chauffeur, sugar,* and *sure,* the sound of *sh* as in *show* is regularly spelled with *sh* at the beginning of words. It is also regularly spelled with *sh* at the end of a word (*dish*) but in other word positions it is spelled in 16 other ways in the 10,000 words most frequently written and much more often in other ways than with *sh* (*ocean, machine, social, mission, insure, action, initiate,* etc.).

The spelling of vowel sounds is much less regular. The short vowel sounds are most consistently spelled but, as already noted, the short sound of i in *pin* is spelled with *i* only a little more than half of the time. Aside from long vowels influenced by silent *e,* there is no long vowel sound in which the most phonetic spelling is found in 50 per cent of common words that contain the sound.

Special difficulties are also found in spelling the vowel sounds in unstressed syllables since in these syllables the

sounds are less distinctly heard or pronounced and tend to shift to the "schwa" sound, which is the sound of *a* in the first syllable of *around* and in the second syllable of *separate*. The schwa sound is spelled in more than 30 ways in common words. How many more ways is determined by how liberally "common" is defined and whether proper names are included. And even in stressed syllables many vowel sounds are spelled in a variety of ways. Note the spelling of the long *a* sound in *age, freight, aid, great, they, vein,* and *stay*. Diphthongs are also troublesome (*boy, boil; cow, count*).

Silent letters are a tough problem. If one includes letters not pronounced in digraphs, as in *please* or *boat*, and double letters where only one is pronounced, all but 4 letters of the alphabet – *j, q, v,* and *x* – are silent in some words. The letter *x*, which is never silent, has the unusual distinction of sometimes spelling, with only one occurrence in a word, two sounds in two separate syllables – *example* eg.zam'p'l. Pupils make many errors in spelling words containing silent letters; they have special difficulties in making decisions as to (a) whether a letter should be doubled and (b) whether to add a silent *e* at the end of a word or syllable or a second vowel in the digraph in spelling a long vowel sound, as in *boat* and *note* or *wait* and *late*.

Silent letters are a different problem in spelling from what they are in reading. For example, when a child sees the words *knight* and *gnaw*, he may note that *g* and *k* are silent before *n* in the same syllable but he has no phonetic clue which enables him to insert these letters in spelling the sounds in these words.

*care* and *kite* is more often spelled with *c* than with *k*, but the pupil's problem is to decide when to use *c* and when to use *k* or some of the other letters that spell the sound. In the English language *c* is regularly hard before all letters except *e, i, y,* and *h* and sometimes before *h*, as in *chorus*. This generalization is useful in reading, and it should be helpful in spelling if, in a given word, the pupil knows which letters spell the sounds which come after the *k* sound. Actually, the *k* sound at the beginning of a word is, with few exceptions, spelled with *c* before *a, o, u, r,* and *l*, but with *k* before *e, i,* and *y*. This would seem to be a generalization that could be usefully taught, yet a study of the attempts of pupils to spell the *k* sound shows that most pupils, even in the second and third grades, do spell the *k* sound in accordance with this rule even when the rule has not been taught.

On the other hand, they have considerable difficulty in spelling the *k* sound, the *kw* sound, or the *ks* sound within or at the end of words. Note how these sounds are spelled in *ankle, uncle, echo, break, ache, music, sick, box, socks, track, attractive, walk, quite,* and *etiquette*.

There are also certain word patterns of which pupils should be aware. It is not too much, for example, to expect pupils to learn that one cannot spell *bed, bede,* or *hate, hat*, but notice the spelling of the sound *ate* in other words, such as *freight, wait, straight,* and *great*, and the spelling of the short *e* sound in *head, said*, etc.

It is to be expected that there will be differences of opinion as to how the evidence on the spelling of the various sounds is to be interpreted and as to the significance of the evidence for spelling instruction. The writer has

(Photo, Courtesy of Portland, Ore. Public Schools)

### Word Patterns and Phonetic Principles

Even in the case of sounds spelled differently in different words, however, there are some known phonetic rules which, if learned and applied, should help pupils to determine how certain sounds should be spelled and other rules may be discovered by further research. On the other hand, the limited success in attempts to teach pupils to learn and apply even a very few spelling rules suggests that we should not be too optimistic about the practicability of teaching the much more numerous and complicated rules or principles in phonetics. The policy in teaching any phonetic generalization should be the same as for teaching other spelling rules; that is, it should apply to a large number of words, have few exceptions, and be taught inductively. For example, the sound of *k* as in

called attention to the sounds that are spelled with high consistency, but has emphasized especially the degree of inconsistency to be found in the spelling of certain sounds. This was done because some of the statements as to the phonetic consistency of English spelling are inaccurate and others seem to be very misleading. For example, according to the writer's count the *k* sound is spelled with *c* 64.36 per cent and the *s* sound with *s* 71.19 per cent of the time. The significance of these low percentages cannot be passed off by saying, "Well, these are just two of the letters of the alphabet." The low percentages take on increased significance because of the frequency with which these sounds occur. The *k* sound is found in 2593 words of the 10,000 words most frequently written and the *s* sound in 3702. There are 5309 words of the 10,000 which contain either the *k* or *s* sound and in some words both

sounds are found. The great majority of words most commonly written contain one or more sounds that are spelled differently in other words.

It has been suggested that words which are important in adult writing but not written frequently by children need not be taught since, allegedly, they can be spelled by "word analysis, sounding, and logical reasoning by analogy." The evidence reviewed above shows this suggestion to be rather naive, and investigations of pupils' misspellings make it even more so. In 1400 spellings of the word *beneficial* by seventh, eighth, and twelfth grade students and college seniors, the word *beneficial* was misspelled 218 different ways. In 95 of the misspellings the spellings of the sounds were analogous to the correct spelling of the same sounds in other words. It has been repeatedly shown that one of the most common errors in spelling is spelling by analogy.

It has been suggested that spelling lessons in the early grades should be made up of words which have completely regular spellings, so as to develop fixed and accurate responses to the spelling of certain speech sounds. This suggestion clearly conflicts with the principle of selecting words most needed by children in their present writing. If words are selected on the basis of present need, as I think they should be, a very large proportion will be unphonetic, and these words, frequently written by primary children, are the words on which help should be given. There are many other types of evidence, moreover, which must be considered in planning phonic instruction.

**Additional Evidence on Phonics**

Investigations such as those by Cordts and Sullivan of the frequency with which different letters, letter blends, and phonograms occur in the vocabulary of primary reading and the different ways each phonic element is pronounced, as well as the extensive syllable counts made by Dolch and Osburn, deserve careful consideration even though they are concerned primarily with phonics in relation to reading. These data are essential if it be found advisable to teach sound-to-letter and letter-to-sound relationships together. Pronouncing printed symbols, however, is in most instances much easier than spelling sounds. For example, one of the commonest final syllables in Osburn's count is *er*. The pronunciation of this syllable in reading should give little trouble, but notice how the sound of this syllable is spelled in *mother, acre, doctor, murmur,* and *popular*. In the attempts of 802 seventh grade pupils to spell *familiar,* this sound was misspelled in ten different ways.

There have been many investigations of the ways in which common words are misspelled by children and of the types of errors which are most prevalent, but these investigations cannot be reviewed here. The data from these investigations, however, are very useful. Pupils misspell words not only by writing letters that do, in other words, spell the sounds correctly, and by omitting silent letters, but also by writing letters that cannot possibly spell the sounds. Instruction as to how sounds may and may not be spelled should help at least to reduce this third type of error.

The evidence on the spelling achievement of deaf children may have a bearing on teaching phonics in relation to spelling. Templin, in a well-controlled experiment, found the mean number of words misspelled by the pupils of normal hearing to be three times as large as the number misspelled by the deaf. These results confirm in principle those earlier reported by Gates and Chase, and by Hofler in Germany. Templin suggests several factors which may explain the superior spelling achievement of deaf children: the development of superior word perception, greater emphasis on spelling in their instruction, and the absence of confusions in relating auditory and visual word patterns in an unphonetic language. This last factor may well be the most influential. It does not necessarily follow, however, that instruction in phonics is futile; in view of the difficulties of our unphonetic language, such instruction may be found to be essential for children of normal hearing.

(Photo, Courtesy of Portland, Ore. Public Schools)

There is a growing body of evidence that shows that children who have had systematic phonic instruction are superior in both reading and spelling to those who have not, at least in the primary grades. Beltramo, in a recent extensive investigation, found that, by the end of grade one, experimental classes of children who had limited but well-planned, systematic instruction in both sound-to-letter and letter-to-sound relationships were superior in both reading and spelling to control classes that had only the hit-and-miss instruction in phonics that usually accompanies the teaching of the basic reader. The differences in spelling achievement between the control and experimental sections was very large. Some of the children in the control classes did not even attempt to spell many of the words used in one of the tests.

In an earlier experiment by the writer on the effect upon spelling of teaching phonics as a part of reading, errors due to spelling by analogy were found to be very common. For example, 195 pupils in grades one and two who had received systematic phonic instruction spelled *tease* in 48 different ways. The best spellings were, in order of frequency, *tes, teas, tees, teez, tez,* and *ts*. No matter how carefully instruction in phonics is planned, whether in separate periods or not, a considerable amount of phonetic spelling must be expected, especially in the free writing which children do. In one school where spelling achievement is high throughout the grades, primary children are encouraged to write extensively, and phonetic misspellings are dealt with very leniently so long as they communicate.

The evidence which has been reviewed above is not cited to imply that the teaching of phonics has no contribution to make to spelling. It should be evident, however, that the problems involved are far from simple. While the data on the way in which the various sounds are spelled cannot be disregarded in setting up any plan for utilizing phonics as an aid to spelling, there are other types of evidence that are also needed:

*(Continued on Page 246)*

# PREPARING OUR STUDENTS FOR TEACHING

**Hazel Perk Daniels and Dorothea Hinman**

The university student who is in the process of becoming a teacher needs careful guidance to foster continuous growth towards personal adequacy and towards professional adequacy. This growth cycle begins when the student first becomes aware of choosing teaching as a life interest, continuing throughout the four years of university work and on into professional life. Intensive guidance is especially needed during the latter half of the student's university experience and the beginning years of her teaching.

### The Professional Semester

For juniors and seniors enrolled in Elementary Education at Penn State, guidance functions through the medium of the "professional semester." For one semester each of these years the usual division of the student's time among several separate courses is abandoned and she joins a group of her fellows in a unitary undertaking involving eight weeks of experience on the campus and eight weeks of experience participating in the schools and neighborhoods of the community away from the university campus. In the planning of any specific professional semester, many factors determine whether the off-campus experience will come the first or second half of the semester – staff preference, a workable plan of assignment of dormitory rooms, wishes of cooperating school systems, etc. This approach is an effort to integrate with greater effectiveness first-hand experience with teachers-in-service and the resources offered by the university campus with the hope that both will in this way have greater meaning for the student.

### Off-Campus

During the off-campus period a group of students under the guidance of the university coordinator lives and works in one of the five Pennsylvania communities now cooperating with the University in the education of elementary school teachers. Each student lives in a private home, preferable with one or two other students, becoming a member of that community during the eight weeks. The University co-ordinator and the public school personnel cooperate in developing a plan for her work in a kindergarten or elementary grade.

The student works most closely with the classroom teacher responsible for the group of children in a grade room and with the staff of the particular school to which she is assigned. She is invited and encouraged to participate in all activities characteristic of that school. The classroom teacher and the student are cooperatively responsible for the planning of the student's work during the actual time spent in the public school experiences. This involves both observation and participation as well as more responsible planning, teaching and evaluating. A good relationship between the classroom teacher and the student results in planned and unplanned conferences as a regular part of the day's work.

The university coordinator spends four days a week, on an average, in the off-campus community. She (or he) serves as counselor, friend and supervisor depending on the nature of the problem involved. She spends some time in the classroom observing the student at work and frequently holds group and individual conferences with the students or the classroom teachers. She works also with the administrators in the school-system so that they too have an active part in the training of these future teachers.

### On-Campus

A prime advantage of the "professional semester" seems to lie in the fact that the particular group of students *with* their coordinator plans the nature of the experiences during the period on-campus, rather than having this plan prearranged by the university staff. Goals and objectives are constantly projected and evaluated by the group. Planning, evaluating and replanning are on-going processes thus allowing the students to experience ways of teaching which they in turn might use with children. Through this continuous experience with one another and with one particular staff member, a quality of relationship develops which guides this student-teacher planning, freeing the members of the group from the formalized patterns and pressures of the usual academic situation.

A second important advantage of the on-campus period is that it provides large blocks of time within which the experiences which uniquely fit the interests and needs of the members of the group can be effectively planned – something not easily accomplished with the usual scheduling of separate courses at unrelated hours. In this way the resources of various persons from the university staff and community help to acquaint the student with specific teaching materials and methods as well as helping them to develop appreciation for a philosophy of education based on sound and tested principles of human growth and development. Some of the areas of special need and interest around which this on-campus work might center are psychology, philosophy, music, art, arithmetic, social studies, language arts or science. Usually it is possible for a student to spend a concentrated period of time in two or three of these fields. The particular needs and

*Presently Assistant Professor of Education at Pennsylvania State University, Miss Daniels was also critic teacher at the Marshall College Laboratory School. When workshops and extension classes do not take all her time, she loves relaxing in her cabin in a nearby state forest, and in the summer lives by the ocean in South Carolina.*

interests of each group are discovered through group discussions and written evaluations of their past experiences with teaching particularly of their student-teaching experience.

A third advantage of the "professional semester" is that it allows a group of students to know one another well enough as persons that they share their real and personal concerns as developing teachers and so learn much from one another. Social get-togethers – outdoor "cook-outs," meetings in the instructor's homes, field trips to places of interest in the university community, trips to Washington, Gettysburg or New York – help to bring the students closer together.

**Follow-Up**

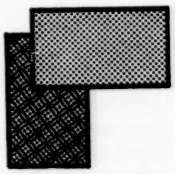
Graduates of Penn State who teach in the schools of Pennsylvania continue to receive guidance from the University during their first years on-the-job. Many of the most crucial problems of the developing teacher come at this time. The university staff members who have participated in the training of these students during their university years are uniquely qualified to help the student in making the transition to a full-fledged professional life. This involves helping her to progressively discover her own inner resources and those among her local professional associates. This continued concern for her welfare is especially reinforcing to the beginning teacher and to her local public school administrators.

In the placement office at the University is filed an up-to-date list of our beginning teachers showing their present location. With the cooperation of this office and the school personnel in the various communities, the Elementary Education staff spends part of each semester visiting these teachers following a careful study of the graduate's university record. Each beginning teacher is visited in her first year, and often during her second and third years. Conferences with the local school personnel and with the graduate are a regular part of the visit. Where possible group conferences of graduates located in one geographical area are held.

One of the deeper values issuing from "follow-up" is the continual sensitizing of the university staff members to the needs of the local school communities in which our graduates are likely to locate. This provides for the even sounder development of our plans for the student's four-year university experience.

**A Look Ahead**

The members of the Elementary Education staff have discovered that their effectiveness in leadership training is closely related to their effectiveness in functioning as a group which draws out and integrates the unique contributions of each staff member. During 1952-1953 they worked together continuously in defining their objectives and formulating their developing program. The result of this was the printing of a pamphlet entitled "Educating Our Children's Teachers." Already in 1954 this is being revised by the group. Through this continued cooperation – cooperative planning, implementing and evaluating of experimentation and research – the members of the staff envision the emergence of many new insights which will guide their work even more effectively during the coming year.



# THE REPORT CARD DILEMMA

**Dorothy Rogers**

Strong in the tradition of American education is the periodic practice of sending home report cards. Primarily affected by this ritual are these three – teacher, child and parent. In order to appraise the effects of this practice let us follow the thoughts of these individuals as each handles the report card.

It is the evening before report cards are to be distributed. Miss Baker sits at her desk, tired after a hard day and with little heart for the task. She hates this duty more than any other involved in teaching and always puts it off as long as possible.

Now she picks up Bobby's card. She deliberates between a B and a C, and finally puts down a B. On the fringe of her mind is the not-to-be-ignored fact that Bobby's father is on the Board of Trustees, but she refuses to acknowledge to herself that she takes his position into consideration. She rationalizes her decision to give Bobby the B on the basis that, after all, he was "on the fence."

With a vaguely uncomfortable feeling she rushes on to the next card. This time Miss Baker's decision is easier. Susie, poor child, is a hunchback; she needs some encouragement. Miss Baker, aglow with a righteous feeling of charity, gives Susie higher marks than strict objectivity would justify. Unfortunately, Miss Baker does not realize that she cannot always recognize a child's physical handicap. Every child's physical advantage or handicap varies. Tommy suffers from malnutrition; he has no energy for his tasks. Roy has a glandular condition that makes him sluggish in behavior and irritable in manner. Miss Baker does not recognize that these two are handicapped; she thinks they are "just lazy" and, to penalize them, lowers their marks.

On the next card, Timmy is given a little boost in his grades for making such an effort. Timmy often goes to Miss Baker for help and asks her criticism of his work. Joe, a proud but dull boy, tries just as hard as Timmy, but disguises his feelings of frustration in an "I don't

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care" attitude. This is merely Joe's way of trying to save his own self-respect. Miss Baker, however, feels justified in reducing Joe's grade on the basis of "poor attitude."

### Can't Avoid Bias

Next the teacher picks up Emily's paper. What an adorable child! Emily dearly loves Miss Baker and will do anything to please her. Is Miss Baker to be condemned for a slightly biased attitude where Emily's marks are concerned?

And so it goes, card after card. The hour is late. Miss Baker is tired; her judgment inevitably grows less careful. A complex of factors, mental and emotional, weight her decisions. She has never clearly defined to herself her own grading policy: it is probably a mixture of vague theory plus present expediency. Finally, with the ordeal over for another month, she puts the last card away with a sigh.

The next afternoon the children are handed their cards. Each child comes to the teacher's desk, in turn, and looks at his card with mixed emotions. Carl is all smiles as he sees his card. All A's! Never mind that Carl has an I. Q. of 150 and could do much better than he does! The card merely indicates that Carl's work has been excellent.

Standing beside Carl is Jimmy, looking very downcast. "Even lower than last month," Jimmy mutters to himself. Jimmy is afraid. His father, a severe man, will look at him menacingly and insist that he explain. If Jimmy were capable of analyzing the situation he might say, "I am not very bright in the first place, father. My I. Q. is only 80 and the teacher 'gears' the discussions to the average child. Besides, you and mother maintain such a tense atmosphere at home that I come to school tied up in emotional knots. I just cannot keep my mind on what is going on in class, father!" Poor Jimmy! Part of his difficulty is his poor home adjustment, and this report card will merely add to the complications.

Jimmy has received no help in self-evaluation. He feels that he is somehow inadequate – incapable of satisfying his teacher, his parents or himself. That inferiority complex of his is getting another boost.

So the children troop out of school and on toward home clutching their report cards. They have only a vague idea of what the grades mean in terms of their own abilities. They are too young to understand the various subtleties and implications of grading systems anyway.

### Home Reactions

Now the scene changes to the home. The bright boy's parents praise him for his "solid-A" card, further confirming Joe's policy of being satisfied with less than his own best efforts. Bobby's father, the member of the Board of Trustees, is pleased at his son's report. He visualizes his son at medical school. He does not realize that he may be in for a jolt. When Bobby goes to the big downtown high school where his father's prestige no longer counts, will his grades fail? His parents will not understand. "What is the matter with Bobby?" they will ask.

Jimmy, the dull child, hands his report card to his father when he is reading the evening paper. Jimmy awaits judgment uneasily, looking at the floor and digging at a worn place in the rug with the toe of his shoe. His father harshly delivers the routine lecture and returns to his paper. Jimmy feels crushed, defeated; his father is ashamed of him. Jimmy tries to forget, taking refuge in daydreams.

Jimmy's mother, like many parents, believes that he could make good grades if he would only try. There is nothing on the card to indicate that Jimmy's best efforts would result in nothing higher than C's. His mother also fails to realize that a child cannot continue "to try" unless he is buoyed up by interest and confidence.

But Jimmy's mother is a practical woman. If the school did not expect her to do something about her son's grades, why did they send his report card home? She tells Jimmy that he must study one hour by the clock every afternoon. The daily battle begins, Jimmy is called in each afternoon from the play which he badly needs for his social growth. He sits staring at his books while his mind wanders. After a few days his mother helplessly relents.

At Tommy's house a similar situation prevails. Tommy, whose lack of energy stems from cheap, starchy food, is rebuked by his mother for his failure to work. It would never occur to the mother that Tommy's trouble lies on the family dining table.

The incidents just described do their share of damage to family happiness, to children's self-respect, to parent-teacher relationships. Since the report card practice has the sanction of tradition, however, these evils have come to be accepted as inevitable.

Educators are in increasing agreement that current report card practices have certain ill effects. They are less in agreement as to the best solution. The suggestions given in the following do not solve, but may ameliorate the situation.

The faculty may study the school's present report card system in terms of the purposes they wish it to serve. They should be wary of consulting measurements books for advice because these books usually treat measurement as a purely statistical matter. The inevitable personal factor is ignored. Teachers know that they cannot ignore this element; they are dealing with children, not just figures and facts.

Tentative suggestions for revision should be discussed at P. T. A., in order to get parent reaction and support. When the final plan is adopted, a letter should be sent to each home explaining, in a brief, non-technical letter, the theory and purpose of the new plan of evaluation.

The faculty may decide to use a diagnostic letter instead of the conventional report card. In such case, carbon copies of the letters are placed in the school files as a part of the children's permanent records. Sample letters will be read by the teachers and discussed in terms of possible parent reaction and effect on the child. They will learn to represent Junior's deficiencies not as Junior's failures but as problems which the school and home will attempt to help him solve. They will learn to make tactful suggestions to parents without casting reflection on their judgment.

### Parent Understanding and Cooperation

Parents will be encouraged to visit the school and talk with the teacher. Parent and teacher will learn to work together to help Junior develop his abilities whatever they may be. They will decide that Junior must participate in his own evaluation so that he may use his abilities in the most constructive way. They will emphasize motivation and encouragement rather than harsh looks and deprecating remarks. Periodic reports will lose their disproportionate importance because they will be only a part of a continuous program of evaluation. If the parents in a community are not sympathetic to a radical change, include some of their leaders in your discussions.

# TEACHING CONSONANT SOUNDS IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

edited by
*Wilbert L. Pronovost, Associate Professor of Speech Education, Boston University*

An analysis of current methods used in teaching reading and speech shows that ear training (auditory stimulation and auditory discrimination) receives major emphasis in the primary grades. Because of the similarity of methods of teaching consonants, it is possible to use an integrated approach in which certain speech and reading skills reinforce each other. In the last two years, primary grade teachers, reading consultants, and speech therapists doing graduate work at Boston University have cooperated in conducting research on ear training, auditory discrimination, and articulation. This research culminated in suggestions for teaching. Further research is necessary to determine the effectiveness of the teaching methods suggested. However, the teaching lessons developed may be helpful to the primary teacher. A sample lesson for teaching the consonant [t] is presented here. Similar lessons can be developed by any teacher for other consonants. Pictures can be traced or drawn by the teacher and mimeographed for distribution to the pupils.

It should be noted that the "different" sound in the last two rows of pictures is auditorily similar to the sound being taught. This provides for increasing the difficulty of the auditory discriminations. The first three rows of pictures require gross discrimination, while the last two rows require refined auditory discrimination.

**Sample Lesson for Initial T Sound**

*These are the suggested words for the teacher:*

"One morning I awoke before anyone in my house. Although I knew that everyone was asleep I could hear one faint sound. It was the soft ticking of the old clock on our front stairs. As its big golden pendulum swings back and forth, it says t-t-t-t-t-t.

Let's all make believe we are clocks. We can make the clock sound with our tongue. Let's all say T-t-t-t-t. Watch my tongue as I say it. I press the tip of my tongue on the little ridge behind my teeth. I keep my mouth open a little. When I drop my tongue quickly, I say T, just like the clock. Listen while I make the clock sound, T-t-t-t-t.

Now you do it. Press the tip of your tongue against the little ridge behind your upper teeth. Drop it quickly and say T. Now let's all be clocks and say T-t-t-t-t. Remember to press the tip of your tongue against the little ridge before each T sound.

(Teacher and children say T-t-t-t-t-t together.)

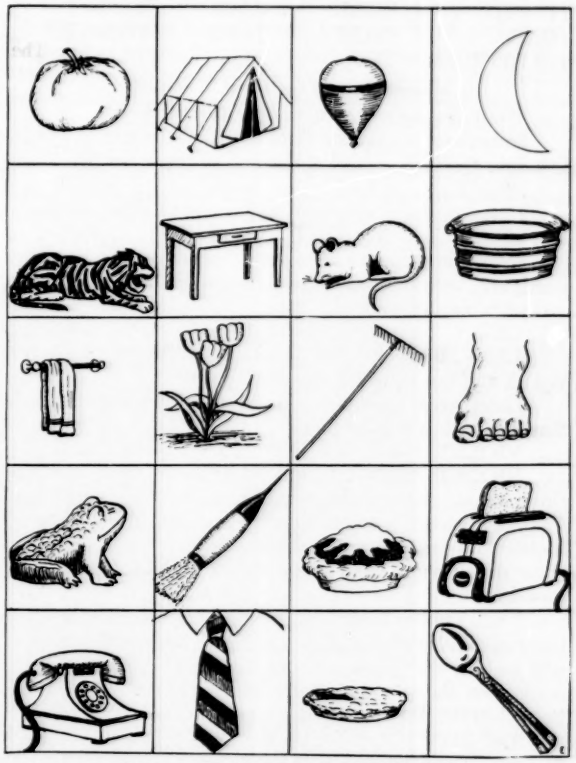
Sometimes we use the clock sound when we say words. Listen to the clock sound at the beginning of these words.

TELEVISION TICKLE TIME TIN

Listen to the clock sound in these words.

TURKEY TAKE TURTLE TOWN

Now I am going to say some more words. Some of the words begin with the clock sound. Some of the words do not begin with the clock sound. Raise your hand when you hear words that begin with the clock sound



**Picture Work Sheet for Initial "t"**

TALL TEETH TOAD RING

Good! TALL, TEETH, and TOAD begin with the clock sound. RING did not begin with the clock sound.

Listen again and raise your hand when you hear words that begin with the clock sound!

TOY NAPKIN TUBE TAIL

Good! TOY, TUBE, and TAIL did begin with the clock sound. NAPKIN did not begin with the clock sound.

Now we are going to play a game with some pictures.

*Instructions for Picture Work Sheet:*

*(Pass out picture work sheet to each child for "initial t" sound. Children can use card board markers, pegs, etc., which they have in their desks to mark correct pictures.)*

Dr. Pronovost directed the development of the teaching materials of the type reported here. They are variations of a type of lesson used in teaching reading. Dr. Helen Murphy and Dr. Donald Durrell served as consultants. The graduate students who participated are the authors of the theses listed in the bibliography of this article.

I will say the names of the pictures. Some of the pictures will begin with the clock sound and some will not. You will look at the pictures while I say their names. Put a marker on the pictures that begin with the clock sound. Ready! TOMATO.

Did TOMATO begin with the clock sound? Yes, it did. So put a marker on it.

Here is another word. TENT.

TENT does begin with the clock sound so you should have a marker on it.

(Check papers to see that children are marking correctly.)

Ready for the next word. TOP.

TOP does begin with the clock sound and you should have a marker on it.

Here is another word. Ready! MOON.

MOON does not begin with the clock sound, so you have a marker on it.

Now I will say some more words. Remember to put a marker only on the ones that begin with the clock sound. Ready! *(Read each row separately.)*

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| TIGER | TABLE | MOUSE | TUB |
| TOWEL | TULIP | RACK | TOES |
| TOAD | DART | TART | TOASTER |
| TELEPHONE | TIE | PIE | TEASPOON |

**Sample Lesson for Final T Sound**

*These are suggested words for the teacher:*

Sometimes we say the clock sound at the end of words. Listen to the clock sound at the end of these words.

WENT SAT LATE ROOT

Listen to the clock sound at the end of these words.

BENT SOUGHT PAT BUT

Now I am going to say some more words. Some of the words end with the clock sound. Some of the words do *not* end with the clock sound. Listen.

LET HOT WALK EAT

LET, HOT and EAT end with the clock sound. WALK did not end with the clock sound.

Listen again and raise your hand when you hear words that end with the clock sound.

VIOLET RUN PEANUT ELEPHANT

VIOLET, PEANUT, and ELEPHANT end with the clock sound. RUN did not end with the clock sound.

Now we are going to play a game with some pictures.

*Instructions for Picture Work Sheets:*

*(Pass out picture work sheet to each child for "final t" sound.)*

I will say the names for the pictures. Some of the pictures will end with the clock sound and some will not. You will look at the pictures while I say their names. Put a marker on the pictures that begin with the clock sound. Ready! BONNET.

Did BONNET end with the clock sound? Yes, it did. So you put a marker on it. Here is another word. PLANT.

PLANT does end with the clock sound so you should have a marker on it. Ready for the next word. MOON.

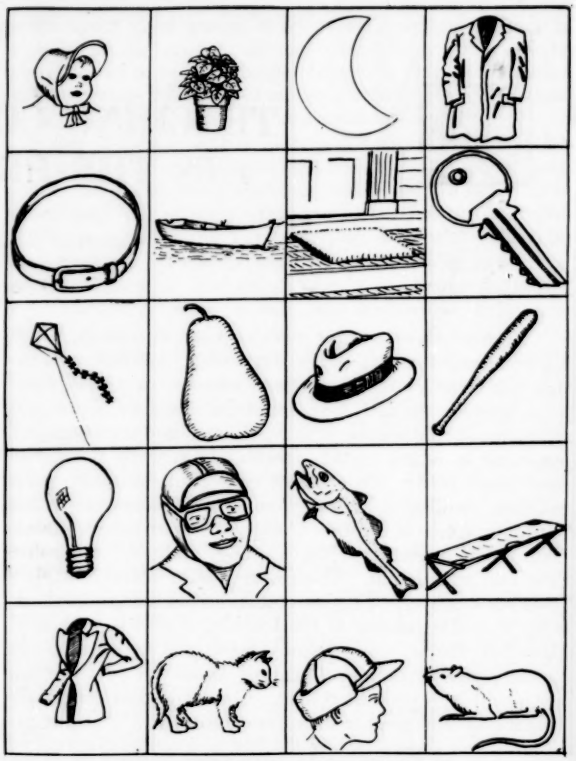
MOON does not end with the clock sound so you should not have a marker on it.

Here is another word. Ready! SHIRT

SHIRT does end with the clock sound, so you should have a marker on it.

Now I will say some more words. Remember to put a marker only on the ones that end with the clock sound. Ready! (Read each row separately.)

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| BELT | BOAT | MAT | KEY |
| KITE | PEAR | HAT | BAT |
| LIGHT | PILOT | COD | COT |
| COAT | CAT | CAP | RAT |



**Picture Work Sheet for Final "t"**

**Speech Practice**

Group speech practice on the consonant sound is provided during the early part of the lesson as the children say the sound and the words after the teacher. Individual practice can be given by having individual children name the pictures as they pick up their markers after the auditory discrimination portion of the lesson. This procedure is particularly valuable if the teacher can give some individual attention to the child who has a speech difficulty on the sound being taught. Individual work with the lesson gives a child the opportunity to hear a sound used in the initial or final position twenty-nine times, and to repeat these twenty-nine words in his own speech. Corrections can be made if the child does not articulate the sound accurately in some words.

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# SAFETY COMMITTEE FOR SAFETY CONSCIOUSNESS

**Mildred Hooper**

*Forward:* A series of minor casualities and a day's quota of three more serious injuries snowballed into an awakening of safety seriousness among the children. The children discussed the safety problems, and then hit upon the idea of a special department to be responsible for safety – a safety committee. Three of the most active boys were appointed "Vanguards of safety." These three boys, who had previously disregarded safety for their more active personal gains now shouldered a safety sense of responsibility for the smaller and for the less active children. The result was a mounting consciousness and a decreasing problem of safety.

A small boy arose from his seat, placed one determined hand on each hip, and expounded, "We gotta be more careful, Mr. Mayor. Lot a' kids got hurt this week from rock throwin'."

**Traffic Safety for Kindergarten Pupils at Hawthorne School, Seattle, Washington.**

"Yes," agreed another youngster as he stood and brushed back a stubborn shock of hair. "I can mention several boys in here who have been carrying knives, and I think that's plenty dangerous!"

"It's not only the boys doing dangerous things," volunteered a little girl. "I've been seeing some of the girls standing too close to the batter. That's *BAD*."

This was a weekly safety discussion, elaborating on reports from the safety committee, itself. Seriously, with no exclusion of personal commitment, each child who had witnessed or participated in a dangerous activity discussed the problem with open intelligence.

The safety committee was a result of a series of accidents. One girl had received a serious head gash during a game of baseball; one boy had received a blow from a bat in the same game; one child had innocently hurt another because of a sharp object he was carrying. Other minor injuries had resulted from improper use of sharp pencils, notebook clamps, pen points.

After the introduction of a safety committee, the children enthusiastically fell in line with the new safety plan. Each Friday afternoon when the class held an open meeting for the discussion of class problems, the safety committee made its report. Then the children, themselves, participated in a following safety discussion. Alert statements were made advising caution in bike riding; traffic problems were discussed with sincere interest; bus safety problems were discussed and intelligent safety measures adopted.

*(Continued on Page 243)*

# RELAX, TEACHER, RELAX

**Eleanor H. Wilson**

"Relax, Teacher, relax." You've heard that before, haven't you? Via radio, lecture, and friend comes the advice, "Relax." But do you?

An answer in the affirmative very probably means that yours is an unruffled classroom. No feeling of "must," no race against time. A smile plays upon the face of Bob in the front seat (his head is only a pint container) as he works happily, achieving according to his capacity. Not much gritting of teeth nor biting of nails; no jerky movements nor tremors; no shrinking from sharp words. On the contrary, he hears the teacher in a low, pleasant voice commend his progress.

Isn't it that you, the person in charge of the group, know how to recognize signs of tension? You have learned how to keep tension from mounting; you have learned how to relax. And you are imitable. How contagious is your enthusiasm for your subject! Even more catching is that calm, low voice of yours, that even temper, that kind helpfulness.

The less aware you are, of these atotributes, the greater the transfer. "Become the imitable thing, and you may then discharge your minds of all responsibility for the imitation," says William James in his *Talks to Teachers on Psychology.*[2]

**Children of Mt. Olive Lutheran School in Mankato, Minn., relax at intervals during the day.**

Across the aisle John (his head, a quart container) also is busily at work, for he delights in doing those extra projects which the teacher suggests. Mary and Jane laugh outright as something strikes them as funny. There is no constant giggling, no twitching nor turning.

Irritability, worry, anxiety, restlessness—all symptoms of "school sickness" [1]caused by "pressure" in the classroom —claim no victims here. Why?

Realizing the importance of a knowledge of the principles of relaxation on the part of every classroom teacher, the public school system of Madison, Wisconsin, in 1950 initiated a course in "The Principles of Relaxation." This was open to all teachers and took one hour a week for ten weeks. Here a definite technique of relaxation was taught by Miss Maja Schade, associate professor of physical education at the University of Wisconsin.

*Eleanor H. Wilson is professor of Latin and English at Bethany Lutheran College, Mankato, Minn. She has written considerably on the teaching of Latin, and served on several state curriculum committees and conferences. Miss Wilson says her most rewarding extra-curricular activity is taking groups of students to visit, read, write and sing for mentally ill patients in the state hospital.*

1. Terms used by J. F. Rogers, M. D., former consultant in hygiene and specialist in health education of the Federal Office of Education; quoted in *Corrective Physical Education* by Josephine Rathbone, p. 167.

2. William James, *Talks to Teachers on Psychology.* New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1946, p. 219.

During the summer of 1952, the topic was brought to the attention of teachers enrolled at the summer session of the University of Wisconsin by a three-day institute on "Motor Development, Dance, and Relaxation," sponsored by the physical education department. With students before her on the gym floor, Prof. Schade demonstrated a specific technique of relaxation. A panel on relaxation moderated by Prof. Schade included Mr. Philip Falk, superintendent of Madison schools, and Dr. Thelma Hruza of the neuro-psychiatric division of the student health department.

Miss Schade, who initiates all freshmen at the University into this art and in herself demonstrates that which she would teach, gives this advice to the teacher who would learn to relax:

First, learn to recognize the signs of tension in yourself. Do you find yourself becoming irritable, easily excitable, holding your body in one position as you sit at the desk, gripping the chair legs, raising your voice unnecessarily? Do you feel cramped and restricted in movement?

Now, if you have discovered these tensions in yourself, learn to relax them. How? A considerable amount of relaxation can be gained from exercises designed for this purpose. Examples are: (1) rhythmic movement; (2) swinging movement with the emphasis on the relaxed downward phase of the swing; (3) light stretching, particularly of the postural muscles.

A deeper and more beneficial type of relaxation will be gained from ten- or fifteen-minute rest periods throughout the day. Lie on your back on a soft but firm surface. If you ordinarily use a pillow, put one beneath your head; place a blanket-roll or pillow beneath the knees. The arms lie at the side of the body with the palms down, the elbows somewhat bent. The legs are slightly rotated outward, so that the lower legs rest almost on the side of the calves. The knees are slightly flexed and supported by a blanket-roll to relieve strain on the lower back.

Next, fix your attention up on breathing. Do not alter nor force it; simply give attention to it. Breathe easy in, easy out. Notice the rise and fall of the chest, of the abdomen. Try for a longer exhalation, but do not force it.

Think of the right arm as becoming heavy. In practice periods of five to ten minutes three or four times a day establish the practice of concentration upon rhythmic breathing, of the feeling of heaviness in the right arm.

Firmly established, the heaviness sensed in the right arm will automatically transfer to the left. Now think of the shoulders as dropping back, the upper back becoming wide and flat, the neck long and loose. At this point forget details and think of the upper body as a unit.

Next, proceed to the legs which become heavy and tend to drop apart. The hips are wide and spread out. Then think of the lower body as a unit.

During exhalation think of the abdominal wall as sinking down to the back. With this, the lower and upper parts of the body are united. Now think of the body as a heavy mass.

Give attention to the face. The throat is wide, the lower jaw drops, the eyebrows drop, the forehead spreads apart. The face as a whole feels loose and wide.

This description is necessarily brief; details and explanations have been omitted. Should you wish to read more about the various other methods of relaxation, look up one of the following books: Edmund Jacobsen, *You Must Relax*, N. Y.: Whittlesey House. 1934; David Fink, *Release from Nervous Tension*, N. Y.: Simon and Schuster, 1943; William James, *Talks to Teachers on Psychology*, N. Y.: Henry Holt and Company, 1899 (1946); Josephine Rathbone, *Relaxation*, Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1943.

Now that you have learned something about tension and relaxation in yourself, be alert to note these symptoms in your class. Fidgeting, biting nails, twisting a handkerchief—all are signs of tension. Give much thought to the means of reducing tension in class situations.

We are well aware that a change of activity often creates fresh interest. Are we equally aware that a good laugh is one of the best means of releasing the tensions?

Teach the class to relax by letting them drop shoulders and head upon the desk for a few minutes. Call attention to the easy-in, easy-out rhythmic process of breathing.

No more than five minutes of the class hour need be spent on any of these procedures. The investment will pay large dividends in the form of happy, well-adjusted classes.

Would that every classroom teacher might answer the qustion, "Do you know how to relax?" Yes, my class does too."

**HOOPER-SAFETY**

(Continued from page 241)

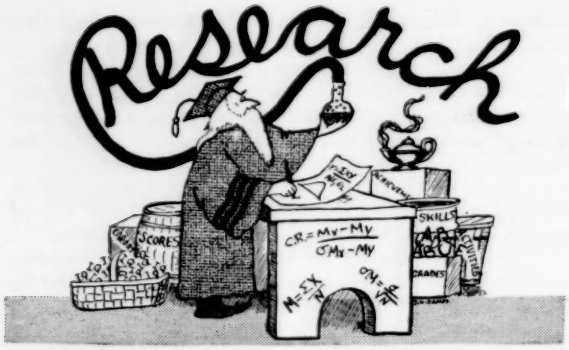
One afternoon after the children had swarmed in from recess, a little girl raised her hand anxiously. "I have a safety problem that should be settled. May I bring it up, now?"

"Certainly," I agreed, "if it is a problem which needs an immediate solution."

"Well," continued the little girl, tossing her pigtails back over her shoulders, "some of the kids have been picking up old pieces of mirror from the auditorium which is being torn down, and it's real dangerous. I have some, and I know lots of other kids have, too. So, I suggest we all turn in these pieces before someone gets hurt."

The suggestion met with full co-operation. Even a few of the bigger "problem boys," who had at first hesitated, grinned, held up their hands, and voluntarily relinquished their loot.

At the end of the year, not all accidents had been avoided, but many potential accidents had been eliminated. Playground hazards, such as glass, protruding nails, splintered boards, jagged rocks, had been removed. School room hazards, such as sharp pencils, pens, compasses were kept in their proper places. And—most important of all—a new awareness, safety consciousness, had come over all of us!




## MORE ABOUT TELEVISION

One of the early reviews of research summarized a number of studies that had been completed concerning the influence of television upon such variables as scholastic achievement of children, leisure activities, interests, etc. Most of the studies reported had been completed in the New England area. It appears that children from the Midwest and from "Down-East" are very much alike in so far as their television viewing habits are concerned. At least, this seems to be a fair statement in light of the results of research undertaken by Charles R. Calhoun (2) and Wilbur W. Dick (3), both of Michigan. Their studies indicate just about the same as did the report from Boston that appeared in this section of the October issue of the "Journal of Education."

Their studies, undertaken two years apart, dealt with the television viewing habits of children in the same community. Although television sets had become common appliances during the two- year period, the television viewing habits of the children apparently changed little!

The occupations, socio-economic status, and educational backgrounds of the parents of the children had little to do with the presence of television sets in the home, or with the time the children spent viewing TV. It was interesting to note that "fight night" and "football and baseball Sunday afternoon" had become institutions that keep the family in the home more than formerly.

### Time Spent Viewing

Like Boston children, children in Kalamazoo on the average spend twenty to forty hours per week viewing TV. However, few children indicated that they did, or would give up outside activities in favor of viewing TV.

Apparently most of the children found time to view television by reducing the time they listened to the radio and by eliminating attendance at movies.

Over sixty per cent of the children believed that they did not "overdo" the privilege of viewing TV, although over two-thirds stated that their parents exerted control over their hours spent before the screen. About half of the children indicated also that their parents controlled the types of programs they could view while the other half indicated that they were free to view what they chose. About half the children also stated that their parents made specific efforts to have them view certain programs.

### Can Children Discriminate?

With the usual candor of youth nearly all the children stated that they had a number of disagreements with their parents about their viewing of certain programs. Yet nearly all of them claimed that they were quite able to select the good programs from the poor ones. Apparently, the children do not believe that their parents are as able to select programs as well as they can, or else the children watch all programs whether they believe them to be good or bad.

However, as dutiful children, most of them indicated that they seldom became annoyed with their parents if they were forced to modify their viewing habits.

### Television and Schoolwork

According to most of the students the presence of a TV set in the home aided them in their schoolwork. Specifically, they believed that they profited most in their courses in science, social studies, and music. However, most of them agreed that they "paid the piper" by sometimes arriving at school tired because they stayed up too late. Very few, however, would give up the privilege of watching TV for the possibility of doing better work in school.

Interestingly enough, many children indicated that their extra-curricular interests and hobbies were aided by viewing TV. Exactly how was not made clear.

Apparently, if you give a child a TV set, he acts about the same whether he lives in the "corn country" or "Beantown."

* * * *

Another report from our Michigan confrere which may provide some consolation to eastern girls, especially in teachers colleges, concerns itself with the problems of college girls.

Are the major problems of college girls related to finances? According to Mrs. Helen Inman of Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo, Michigan, they are not! Their major problems seem to involve "men or the lack of them."

In an effort to learn more about the problems of college girls, and hence to improve her work as a dormitory counselor, Mrs. Inman administered the Mooney Problem Check List to over 100 women residing in the dormitories of each of the four colleges of education in the State of Michigan. Her analysis of the responses revealed some very interesting information.

The central problems of most college girls are related to courtship, sex, and marriage. The girls are concerned with keeping themselves "socially afloat in the campus marriage market." They are quite frank in stating that they want to marry. They no longer choose between marriage and a career, but now face the problem of compromising both. This latter point is supported by the number of students who indicate that they are constantly faced with problems of academic adjustment and making effective use of their time in preparing for future careers.

Morals and religion do not seem to be major problems, since most of the students professed that they made satisfactory adjustments to these problems as a result of home influences before coming to college.

Most students admitted that they would welcome guidance in finding solutions to their problems. Unfortunately, they consider most of their teachers as impersonal, academic persons, rather than as interested and friendly counselors. (College Professors take note.)

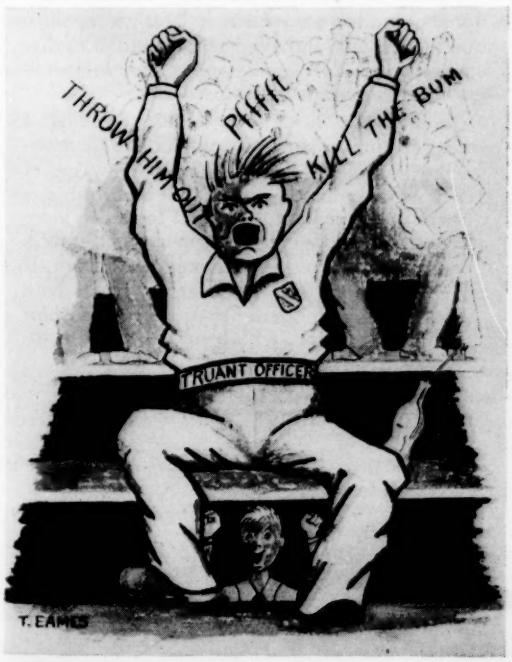
* * * *

## ATTITUDE DEVELOPMENT

In recent years there has been an increased interest and effort directed toward intergroup relations and education, and the development and utilization of procedures which foster more democratic attitudes between members of different ethnic and cultural groups. Early in the 1940's Blake and Dennis (1) reported the increase in negative attitudes toward minority groups as youngsters became older. They asked a group of 324 students from fourth to twelfth grade in a southern consolidated school to indicate which traits they thought were characteristic of whites and negroes. High school students believed whites to be neat, clean, intelligent, wide-awake, ambitious, thrifty. They characterized negroes as slow-moving, easily frightened, ignorant, sleepy-natured, lazy, humorous, inclined to flashy clothes, and suited to being a servant. These views were held by 75% of the group. The lower the grade, the lower the percentage of children holding the stereotypes just given, and at the elementary school many of the traits were not assigned to either race.

That such attitudes are not restricted to children living in the south, nor are the negative attitudes confined to negroes was shown more recently by Radke and Sutherland (6). They asked 275 children in grades 5-12 what they thought Americans, negroes and Jews were like, and what made them think so? The children were attending school in a small midwestern town and had a homogeneous background. They were of German-American stock and Protestant faith.

The progressive increase with age in proportion of children holding negative attitudes towards minority groups was observed. The proportion of negative attitudes towards one or both minority groups by grade levels was: grades 5-6, 46%, 7-8, 53%, 9-10, 68%, 11-12, 68%. Rejecting both minorities at the same grade levels were 17%, 33%, 48%, 60%. The authors report that the children reflected a low level of understanding of cultural differences and similarities, did not see the American group as composed of diverse groups with equal rights, did not identity American with human welfare in general, yet did not associate their anti-minority prejudices with individual persons. Many of the children tested had no associations with either Negroes or Jews yet had absorbed prejudices regarding them.




The source of such attitudes was given further study by Radke (5) and colleagues, in an inquiry into the parental influence on child attitudes. Having obtained data on children's attitudes toward religious and racial groups by virtue of their participation in an experiment in intercultural education, the investigators interviewed the parents of the 99 children – all first and second graders – to obtain information on the parents' beliefs and attitudes regarding cultural differences. Twenty-nine were Negro Protestant, 70 were white–30 Protestant, 25 Catholic, 7 mixed Catholic and Protestant, 7 Jewish, 1 no religious affiliation. Both parents of 40% of the children were employed, educational and income level were low.

The results showed that the parents accepted the residence of different religious and racial groups in the neighborhood, but prefer the children's companions to be of the same religious and ethnic background. They opposed negroes as friends for their children. The parents showed a lack of information and understanding of cultural differences. Comparisons of children's reactions and parental reactions to group differences show similar inadequate understanding of group differences, hostility to different groups, rejection of negroes as playmates, and similar inconsistencies.

A significant finding was that the parents showed greater acceptance of their children's association with children of different ethnic groups in school.

The fact that children absorb or adopt their parents' attitudes toward various groups in the community is not a new one, for one of the functions of the home is to define and interpret the world to the child. However, the parents' willingness to accept broader association in school is significant if it is generally characteristic of adults, and if the school can utilize the opportunity to modify the children's attitudes in more democratic directions.

### MODIFYING ATTITUDES

Attitudes, interwoven as they are into the personality, do not modify easily. Nevertheless, it is not true to infer that schools and teachers can do nothing to change attitudes. Hayes and Conklin (4) report some success in efforts to change attitudes. The study was part of a two-year project carried out in several schools in New York in order (1) to determine the extent of desirable changes brought about in intergroup attitudes through directed teaching, (2) to determine the effectiveness of different types of teaching and (3) to determine what relationships existed between attitudinal changes and intelligence, sex, age, religious affiliation, and cultural background.

During the first year the study included nearly 300 tenth grade students of both sexes. Four high schools were used – a private girls school of superior economic and mixed religious background, a consolidated rural school where the group was largely Protestant from above average economic level, a campus school with children of mixed religious background, and a large city school where the parents of many of the children were foreign-born, of mixed religion, from poorer economic levels, with some negro families.

Different subjects were used in the different schools as the medium through which the experiment was conducted – biology, English, and social studies in two instances. Experimental and control groups were compared utilizing two kinds of measures–(1) scores on two tests related to negro and slum problems, and changes on a social acceptance scale on which children chose those whom they desired and rejected as friends. The experimental groups showed greater gains in development of favorable attitudes, particularly towards negroes, with girls showing greater gains than boys. Children whose parents were foreign born or Jewish-American showed greater gains. Differences in intelligence were not related to the changes made.

In a second phase of the study 232 eighth grade boys and girls were used, again drawn from varied school situations. The attempt this time was to discover which of three teaching approaches produced the greatest change – direct experience in which mixed groups participated in the study of groups, vicarious experience in which the contributions of different ethnic groups to literature, music, and art were studied, or an intellectual approach in which the historical and scientific contribution of Jew, negro, and immigrant were studied. The results showed that greater changes were associated with the vicarious experience than with either of the other two approaches.

While the experiment may be criticized in several aspects which suggest caution in wholesale acceptance of the detailed findings–for instance, how lasting are the effects, or was the vicarious teaching actually superior to direct experience in changing attitudes in view of the fact that the measures used are verbal rather than behavioral – nevertheless there is significance in the fact that attitudes pertaining to stereotypes and prejudices regarding minority groups, directly or indirectly handed down by parents, are modifiable in a school setting. It is further implied that the teacher's task involves not only concern with gains in factual information but equally important changes or improvement in attitude. Not only must a teacher know her subject matter but also her pupils and especially the psychology of group behavior.

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**HORN-PHONICS**

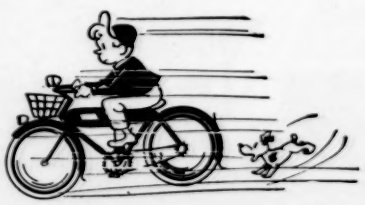
*(Continued from page 235)*

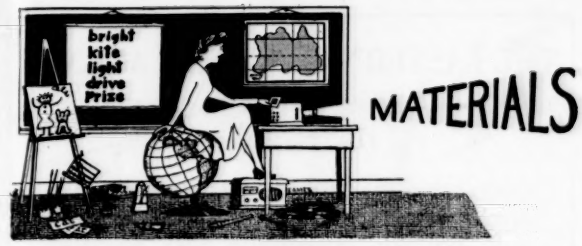
1. Investigations of the effect of sound relationships within the word pattern and of phonetic principles which may be usefully taught.
2. More extensive and critical investigations of the errors which children make in spelling, noting in misspelled words the possible transfer of analogous spellings in other words.
3. Carefully designed investigations of the effect upon spelling ability of specified kinds and amounts of phonetic instruction in clearly defined relationships to other methods of teaching spelling.

### Conclusions

When all the existing evidence is carefully considered, even though it is inadequate on some important matters, it seems to warrant the following conclusions:

1. Instruction in the consistencies and inconsistencies of sound-to-letter relationships should be an integral part of spelling instruction.
2. Any plan for phonic instruction should be based on the existing evidence on the way in which various sounds are spelled. Care should be taken not to form generalizations that do not apply with high consistency and to a considerable number of words.
3. Since most of the words frequently misspelled are unphonetic, instruction in phonics must be regarded as an aid to spelling rather than as a substitute for the direct study of these words.
4. Instruction in phonics is apparently of the greatest benefit to children in the early grades and to poor spellers in later grades since better spellers and readers seem to be fairly successful in developing competence in sound-letter relationships by themselves.
5. Finally, schools must decide how high a price in time should be paid for the development of spelling ability. When the value of spelling is compared with that of other subjects in the curriculum, it is difficult to justify more time than is now given to spelling and only a part of this time can be devoted to phonics. It may be practicable, however, to teach both sound-to-letter and letter-to-sound relationships in the same period, with benefits to both reading and spelling.






# MATERIALS

*NEA Headquarters:*
*National Education Association*
*1201 16th St., N. W.*
*Washington 6, D. C.*

**Catalog of Films on Health and Safety,** Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1 Madison Avenue, New York 10, lists five one-reel sound motion pictures: Be Your Age, on heart disease; Losing to Win, for overweights; Man Against Microbes, excellent historical on man's fight against communicable diseases; Once Upon a Time, fun and education on street and highway safety, (with a little too much slapstick); Proof of the Pudding, nutrition and health. All of these with sound, the last two in color. Sound Film Strips; Jimmy Beats Rheumatic Fever; Teacher Observation of School Children, health needs; Your Friend, the Public Health Nurse, shows the work and problems of these important community helpers. All with records which play 33 1/3 revolutions per minute. Finally, the old standard Health Heroes silent film strips which go with the booklets which are among the earliest commercial school aids produced.

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**What's Engineering? What's an Engineer?** From the Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken, New Jersey, this booklet tells what the young person about to enter this profession needs in the way of training and personality, and what this college can offer to him. It now seems that young people begin to make a choice of engineering vocations as early as seventh grade, although they do not recognize this themselves. No harm in letting your budding scientists see this, later send for some catalogues of engineering schools.

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**A P T—American Petroleum Institute** has a catalogue of Teaching Aid Materials which you can have by writing to them at 50 West 50th Street, New York 20. Ask for the Petroleum School Series and find out about *booklets* for Petroleum in Our Age of Science for General Science classes; Petroleum in Our Modern Society, for Social Studies, upper grades; The Conservation of Petroleum, upper grades and junior high. Film strips with guides for the teacher: Oil, From Earth to You, and Petroleum in Today's Living. Most spectacular—and they are good—are "American Frontier" and "Man on the Land," two documentary sound films. The first is the story of how men drill for oil, the second, with animation and color, tells the tale of man's fight, from prehistoric times to the present, to banish the threat of starvation.

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**Now We Are Three** says the advertising for the booklets published by the Department of Classroom Teachers of the American Educational Research Association, a department of the NEA. What Research Says to the Teacher is the general title; the first was on reading, the two currently appearing are concerned with arithmetic and spelling. Teaching Arithmetic, by R. L. Morton, and Teaching Spelling, by Ernest Horn, are superb (as was the one on reading). No use trying to tell what they cover; they are too solidly packed for that. Just send off your 25 cents for each to NEA headquarters (whose address you will find at the head of this department each issue from now on).

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*Most unusual films* to come this way are those from the International Film Bureau, Inc., 57 East Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill. Their art films are especially noteworthy, with many teacher-pupil techniques exemplified; paper sculpture, finger painting, model houses, design to music are some areas. ANIMULES are imaginary animals, and children are shown in this fascinating activity. Famous painters and their work are shown. The Museum of Fine Arts series, including drypoint, wood engraving, and the silversmith's craft are available. These films are among the most beautiful expositions of crafts known to the writer. The American Indian Series, produced by the University of Minnesota, include pictures of the Navajo, Seminoles, and the Pueblo groups. Flowers in Action are time-lapse pictures by John Nash Ott, Jr., and one should be in every school library. Finally, Spanish and French language and travel pictures are rich sources of those attitudes which language teachers are hoping to achieve. Note that this is a sale, not a rental proposition. Send for the catalogue, then consult your nearest rental agency.

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**The Stansi Science Kit** for elementary schools contains over 100 pieces, "The How Book of Grade School Science" has a total of 144 experiences. Cabinet is metal, with trays and partitions. Cost $41.50 complete. Book alone, $1.25. This is one of three kits currently available, all within five dollars or so of the price. Weakness is that few biological experiences are included, and that materials have to be packed and unpacked, each time an experiment is done. Excellent for the school just starting science, however. Stansi Scientific Co., 1231 N. Honore St., Chicago 22, Illinois.

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*"Helping the Slow Learner in Business Education"* is a special issue, May 1954, of *American Business Education* magazine. More than fifty Business teachers and department heads from various parts of the country present brief, down-to-earth suggestions for helping slow learners enrolled in the different high school business subjects. The magazine was especially prepared for the classroom teacher. Suggestions relate to Typewriting, Shorthand and Transcription, Bookkeeping, Office Practice, Distributive Education, Business Mathematics, Business Law, Economic Geography, General Business, etc. Copies are available at 75 cents each from Theodore La Monte, New York City Public Schools, 12-20 27th Avenue, Long Island City 2, New York.

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*"The High School Business Library"* is a special issue, May 1953, of *American Business Education* magazine—a ninety-six page listing of books, leaflets, and other supplementary materials which should be included on the business reference shelf in a high school library. Materials relate to General Business, Consumer Economics and Business Principles, Economic Geography, Business Mathematics, Bookkeeping, Business Law, Distributive Education, Office Practice, Shorthand—Transcription—Secretarial

Practice, and Typewriting. Copies are available at 75 cents each from Theodore La Monte, New York City Public Schools, 12-20 27th Avenue, Long Island City 2, New York.

*Almost everybody will want to know* about the only total eclipse of the sun for 190 years to come which will be seen in the United States. This will occur about sunrise on June 30, and will be seen in Nebraska, Iowa, South Dakota, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Michigan, and Canada. For full information, send for the 42-page booklet *Total Eclipse of the Sun, June 30, 1954;* 40c from Supt. of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

**Why Study Mathematics?,** a booklet for high school students and advisers, is good. Another one is in preparation, called **"How Math is used at General Electric"** for older students. Write to General Electric, School Service, Schenectady, New York, for more information.

*Just come to our attention,* and for a somewhat specialized audience, is "Research in Review," a publication of the University of Massachusetts at Amherst. Published semi-annually by the Massachusetts Agricultural Experiment Station, address Mailing Room, U. of Mass., it has articles on costs of home fertilizers, pictures of food research in action, 30,000,000 carnations, and ozone, a substitute for chlorine in purifying drinking water. This is for older youngsters looking for careers in agricultural science. Write on your school letterhead.

*Teaching aids concerning the PETROLEUM industry,* Esso Standard Oil Company production, lists *scores* of free charts, models, movies. Geography, well-drilling, chemistry, history, and a magnificent state series of all the states in which the company operates (eastern seaboard to South Carolina, and Tennessee, Arkansas, West Virginia) in movies, are included.

4-H scholarships in these states, graduate study scholarships for Girl Scouts, Junior Achievement, Inc. award are described. Better send for this catalogue to Esso Standard Oil, by asking your local station where the divisional offices are. Or write to this magazine if you cannot get the address that way, addressing Dr. John G. Read, c/o this magazine.

**Railroads Deliver the Goods,** cartoon-type book for the middle and upper grades (and maybe for older slow readers?) shows not only the ways in which trains are managed, but tells about some unusual problems and how they are solved. Free in class quantity from The Association of American Railroads. Transportation Building, Washington 6, D. C.

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**Member N.A.T.A.** **Write for registration form**


**PLACE-TELEVISION**

*(Continued from page 232)*

"It is, I think, an auspicious beginning for educational television. I think too, that our market research has indicated that the climate is right, that a worthwhile number of potential purchasers of what you have to offer are receptive to educational television.

"But let's be honest with ourselves. Few sponsors would consider it worthwhile in an area the size of greater Chicago if the program they purchased delivered only eight to ten thousand viewers. Is it worthwhile for those of you who would, in effect, sponsor non-commercial educational programs to seek an audience of that size? I know that it is, for these reasons.

"We have in the United States a rapidly expanding economy which has its roots in our rapidly increasing technology. Economists are in complete agreement that we must keep our economy strong if we are to survive the tremendous drain imposed upon us by the 'cold war' with our idealogical enemy. They agree, too, that to keep our economy strong we must take the utmost advantage of our increasing technology to increase productivity, to make best use of our national resources.

"This increasing technology demands, yes, makes it necessary, that a larger percentage of our population attain a higher level of education. We have today recurring shortages of quailfied engineers, of competent scientists and technicians, of men and women with sufficient basic knowledge for highly technical industrial jobs. Early this year the National Service Foundation warned of a critical shortage of scientists in the United States. It reported there will be only 15,000 engineering graduates here in 1955 contrasted with 50,000 in the Soviet Union.

"How real is this need? At the headquarters of my company's electronics business, Electronics Park, we employ 11,000 men and women. Because of the highly technical nature of our research and of our work, both military and civilian, one out of every 10 employees at Electronics Park is an engineer. Here are more than 1,000 engineers in one single plant Yet we are constantly beating the bushes for capable and qualified engineers. If we are to continue to push back the frontiers of science, if we are to take advantage of the great technological discoveries that have been made in the past decade, if we are to convert these discoveries into usable machines and equipment and products then we must speed up the task of raising the educational level of all of our citizens."

What can you do to help yourself, your community and the civilized world? The answer is very simple. Find out where the non-profit television channel nearest you is, the one that is subject to FCC reservation for education. Find out who has been working towards the construction and operation of this station. Your immediate offer of support, whether financial or, better still, some time and effort in their organization's work, will be received with open arms. There is work to be done, but station KUHT and soon Boston's Channel 2, and many others, will bear witness to the fact this bloodless revolution can come true.

### Pupils Run School Supply Room

The supply room in the Bigelow Junior High School proved itself an excellent resource this year for the Business Training classes. Supply operation was handled entirely during the year by members of both business classes in a way that was eminently satisfactory and efficient.

After a physical inventory of supplies had been taken in early September, each pupil was assigned the task of maintaining a supply record for an individual teacher. Supply requisitions were routed through the office to a previously-designated pupil supply manager who saw to it that each pupil in the class received an equal number of orders to fill.

It was decided to offer supply service twice a week, on Tuesdays and Fridays, during activity periods. Before initial orders were received, each class had been taken to the supply room and made familiar with both layout and procedure. The latter consisted of assembling an order from a requisition sheet, checking and then delivering the order, obtaining the signature of the receiving teacher, and recording the order.

Each of the two divisions handled the project for a half-year so as to afford all pupils a chance to participate in the experience. Suggestions by pupils for improving the service or increasing the efficiency were not long in coming forth and were uniformly good.

Implications for the future from the experience of the past year look toward visits to local mercantile establishments having well-developed systems of stock and inventory control. And in the larger sense, there is reason to believe that when pupils assist in the administration of school supplies their consumption of school supplies may improve in prudence. ("School Report," Newton, Mass., 1950-1951)

### Tape Recording Improves Quality

Reaching a standard of excellence in group singing with school children which is satisfactory for presentation to parents or for special programs is a difficult task for the teacher in charge. Children may seem to understand the discussion of such concepts as rhythm, attentiveness to the conductor, pitch, quality of tone, expression, vowel sounds, and final consonants, but it is very difficult to make such concepts concrete in the sense that children will incorporate them in their singing.

By the use of the tape recorder the teacher and children can record, play back, discuss, practice, record again, compare, and work to eliminate their own faults. Children gain an understanding of their own faults in singing by hearing their own voices played back to them. They are easily motivated as they work together and observe the improvement in quality. This technique also has great practical value in remedial pitch work, choral speaking, and oral expression.

### Every Citizen A Teacher

Although a visitor in Peirce School today will see that the "good and old" are still there, he will also see that we have brought our models up-to-date. Children read many books; arithmetic is taught with more meaning; individuals are at work to improve their spelling. Along with emphasis on the long-established fundamentals of learning, we find knowledge gained and incentive given by bringing the world and its life into the classroom.

We also have discovered there are many hidden treasures in our community, as in any other—parents who have hobbies to share, friends who bring back slides and pictures of their exciting summer trips, and musicians who play in the Boston Symphony. How fortunate we are to be able to tap this rich field of human talent.

Often our lecturers are friendly neighbors who do not have any children in the school. How honored they feel to act as experts in the friendly and thrilling world of children. The visitors are high in their praise of the responsiveness of the children, and enjoy their keen curiosity. We feel that this sharing is a rich experience for the lecturer as well as the children.

Although not everyone may be at ease with a group of children, nor have the special skill of talking to boys and girls in the classroom, there are other talents valuable to the school community. Often we need volunteer help in taking excursions, cataloguing new books in the library or helping in the cafeteria.

Citizens enjoy contributing services as well as talents to the learning experiences of children. Every adult friend of the school who brings to it some contribution of himself, by just so much, has brought the greater community into the classroom. Every citizen is a potential teacher.

---

"Where does your father work?" That is one question one teacher asked his pupils. The answers launched a study that included making a map of the city to show the places mentioned, and the routes they traveled to work. Next came modes of transportation. Then they studied the industries in the local community, ways of making a living and what makes up a community.

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### *GEOGRAPHY FIRST HAND*

A child in an intermediate grade classroom was going with his parents on a trip. He would be out of school for several days. This was his assignment for make-up work.

1. Send the room a card from each important town you visit.
2. Keep a record of places visited and mark them on a map.
3. Keep a record of mileage from one important place to another.
4. Keep a record of the amount of gasoline and the cost.
5. Figure the miles per gallon for the entire trip.
6. Report on your trip when you return to school.

## THE LIBRARY COUNCIL RECOMMENDS!

The rows of new books in the library closet look so inviting! In fact, they had been tantalizing for weeks. Why is the librarian so slow about getting them into circulation? Oh, yes, I know she has many other duties; that she is busy with classes, coaching of plays, and that processing books has to be squeezed in between her daily library responsibilities. She has promised to get them out as soon as she can. But when?

Perhaps I could take one out over the weekend. I would be willing to cover it, so that it would be fresh for regular circulation. As one of the Library Council, I would be careful. I'd be willing to paste in a pocket and "date due" slip. I could type a card. Could I have it, please? Yes, I could come after school, and the librarian would work with me to get that book ready. She'd do the catalog cards later, but in the meantime I could read, "Double Date." Such an intriguing title!

Then and there a plan was born. Why couldn't the Library Council members who cared to participate become a reviewing group? Why couldn't they take out the books before general circulation,—after having helped process them, of course? Couldn't they tell the librarian a little about the book when they returned it? Why couldn't they feel that it was their privilege and responsibility to know the books that they would be handling over the charge desk? The response to the plan was one of unqualified enthusiasm, and took on even more interest when the librarian decided to give public recognition to the Library Council Reviewer. Now, when a book comes back with an enthusiastic appraisal of the contents, the librarian writes in the back inside cover, "Recommended by . . . , Library Council, 1953." The reviewer then signs his name on the dotted line.

The plan has caught the fancy alike of the Library Council and of the general readers. One often hears, "Let's see who recommended this book," or, "Mike recommended it, so it ought to be good!" Circulation zooms on the recommended books, and the books are usually in circulation within two weeks from the time they arrive in the mails. Students, Library Council—*and the librarian*—are all happy when "The Library Council Recommends."

## A PUPIL-PARENT ANSWER

"What can we do tonight? I don't like to go to a movie *every* Friday night. But what else *can* one do?"

"Can't we have a social, a dance, or, better yet, a canteen?"

"We'll do the work; all we need is your O. K."

A committee of ninth graders had approached the principal to ask whether they might run a student canteen twice a month during the winter season. That was almost six years ago. The Bigelow Canteen has just completed its sixth season, the most successful thus far.

The principal had been impressed by the way in which pupils and parents, with some support from the school, had sponsored the annual Hallowe'en parties. The same pattern has been followed for the canteens. Each year a P.T.A. canteen committee works with the student committee in planning these Friday night socials, one of the best examples we know of cooperative planning among adults and young people. A director, paid for out of the canteen funds, not only supervises the program but also meets with the student group and the parent group, both jointly and separately.

The canteens are self-supporting. This year there were eight in all, of which seven were open to both eighth and ninth graders; one, to ninth graders only. Each evening, four to six parents were on hand to help with refreshments and general supervision; the youngsters bought the beverages while the parents provided the cookies.

Yes, the idea of parents and pupils working together is feasible. Six years of successful canteen sponsorship is ready proof of its practicability.

## MARCHING STRINGS

One afternoon last April, from all over the city eighty elementary school children armed with violins and cellos descended on the Williams School and earnestly set out to prove that large numbers of children can learn to play the stringed instruments and have fun doing it. While members of the Music department grinned from ear to ear and visiting music educators watched open-mouthed, the youngsters, all of whom had begun their lessons in September or later, whipped through a variety of canons, rounds, and short ensemble pieces composed especially for them. Why all this to-do? Simply that in many school systems the art of playing the strings has waned to the point where good school orchestras are practically nonexistent; they have been out-glamorized by marching bands. This condition is unfortunate because, while membership in a school band is a unique and valuable experience, playing in a fine orchestra is frequently a better musical experience and the skills learned are more apt to be used in later life. Music educators freely admit the truth of these statements, yet students and parents are not interested in sufficient numbers to make orchestra-playing popular. Meanwhile the band movement has flourished everywhere.

While no one intends in any way to minimize the importance of the school band as a musical activity, the fact remains that orchestral experience is equally important. Moreover, since orchestras require violinists, violists, and cellists, their training should start when they are young and have more time—hence, in the elementary grades. Our schools have recognized the values from this type of music, and are happy because now the strings are marching, too!

One teacher used a large eraser instead of a red pencil for correcting language themes. Children invariably make a "mess" out of trying to erase. They often erase too much and too soon. This teacher armed herself with a good eraser and went around the room as the children wrote. As she detected needs for capital letters, improved spelling, corrected letter formations, etc., she applied the eraser and helped the pupil decide on the needed change. In this way the first draft was better and the child was encouraged. (Department of Elementary Education, Richmond, Indiana.)

(The above items are from the *Annual School Report* of the Newton, Mass. Public Schools.)

# COMMENTS AND NEWS

It will be recalled that an article on manuscript writing in the Brookline, Massachusetts public schools was published in the October, 1953 JOURNAL. Some half dozen parents in Brookline have made an issue of the policy of teaching manuscript writing. News of the controversy spread far beyond the boundaries of Brookline and even the state. Public hearings were held and then the School Committee sent an announcement to parents. We thought our readers would be interested in that announcement in connection with the article which had been accepted for publication before the controversy began.

*To All Parents:*

We wish to inform you as to what is now the *official policy* of the Public Schools of Brookline with regard to the subject of handwriting, as voted by the School Committee on February 8, 1954. The policy is as follows:

1. The manuscript style of handwriting will continue to be taught in the elementary schools.

2. Beginning at the seventh-grade level the cursive method of handwriting will be taught to all pupils whose parents request it. Accordingly, no pupil need attend the Brookline Schools without training in cursive writing, if his parents wish it.

3. The *reading* of cursive writing will continue to be taught beginning in the fourth grade.

4. The writing of a cursive signature will continue to be taught in the elementary schools.

5. Pupils in all grades who come from other school systems with legible cursive writing will be permitted to continue it, if their parents so desire.

As a result of remarks made by ill-informed persons, erroneous statements have appeared in the press with regard to the practices, value, and accomplishments of the handwriting policy of the Brookline Public Schools. Because of this situation, it is necessary to correct these erroneous statements by giving the parents of Brookline children the true facts, as follows:

*IT IS A FACT* that, despite statements to the contrary, all interested parents have known that the manuscript method of handwriting has been taught in Brookline over the past 10 years. During this period children have been bringing home their written work from school and, therefore, parents have known that their children have been writing in the manuscript form.

*IT IS A FACT* that the manuscript method of handwriting was introduced in the Brookline Schools *only* after intensive study and research.

*IT IS A FACT* that the manuscript method of handwriting helps our children immeasurably in beginning reading. This is attested to by educators all over the country.

*IT IS A FACT* that the manuscript method of handwriting helps our children to express themselves on paper earlier and with greater ease and fluency than other methods.

*IT IS A FACT* that the manuscript method of handwriting is more legible than other methods of handwriting, and this legibility is maintained.

*IT IS A FACT* that the manuscript method of handwriting is as fast as, or faster than, the cursive style. A recent test of Brookline elementary school children showed that the average speed of manuscript-style writers was greater than the average speed of cursive-style writers in every grade from the third through the eighth.

*IT IS A FACT* that the manuscript method of handwriting is more advantageous to left-handed and handicapped children than other methods.

*IT IS A FACT* that the manuscript method of handwriting is being adopted in industry more and more each day.

*IT IS A FACT* that the Brookline School Committee, all of its administrative staff, and more than 90 per cent of its teachers feel that the present policy of teaching manuscript writing is for the BEST INTERESTS AND EDUCATIONAL WELFARE of our children.

# NEW BOOKS

## THE SOCIAL STUDIES

During the last year the principal contributions to the literature of social studies education have been the publications of the National Council for the Social Studies. Its five volume Curriculum Series, which began several years ago with Mary Willcockson's *Social Education of Young Children: Kindergarten and Primary Grades,* was completed in 1953 with the publication of *Social Studies in the Senior High School: Programs for Grades Ten, Eleven, and Twelve,* and *Social Studies in the College: Programs for the First Two Years,* making available to teachers and curriculum workers analyses and descriptions of social studies programs from kindergarten through the first two years of college. The Council's Twenty-fourth Yearbook, *Skills in Social Studies,* provides the most nearly complete treatment of the subject in print. Two new items in the Bulletin Series round out the Council's recent major publication effort.

*Social Studies in the Senior High School,* edited by Eunice Johns, like the other volumes in the series, consists mainly of descriptions of social studies programs. The six which are sketched in this volume vary from the core to the near-typical. In each instance the author has included a brief outline of a unit which is taught somewhere in the program. In some instances the reader is provided with a description of the community in which the school is located and of the pupil population which the school serves. Most of the authors suggest, in more or less detail, how their curriculums were built: the kinds and sources of advice which were solicited, the degree to which parents and community entered in, and other matters which were involvd in the process. No claim is made that these are model programs, nor that they are the best which could have been included. They are perhaps representative; and they do show how serious, conscientious teachers in these six school systems have tried and are trying to do a better job of social studies curriculum building. As such they offer help to those who are similarly engaged and encouragement to the hesitating.

Of no less value are the other parts of the volume. Part I provides a description of the social studies curriculum in American secondary schools today and a discussion of relevant current issues and problems. In Part II the factors to be considered in social studies curriculum construction are outlined. In many ways Part IV is the most useful section of all; in it the author, in addition to an analysis of current efforts to improve the social studies curriculum, offers specific suggestions about units and topics to be included, materials to be selected, and techniques to be used. Part V is an annotated list of selections for further reading. All in all, this is a publication which the teacher or curriculum worker ought to consult, despite the fact that the style is uneven and despite the inclination of one or two contributors to wordiness.

*Social Studies in the College,* edited by William Tyrrell, deals with social studies programs in the first two years of college. Programs in liberal arts colleges, universities, teachers colleges, and junior colleges are included. This volume differs from the other volumes in the series mainly in that its descriptions of programs, which are briefer, are limited principally to actual content and organization, and are grouped according to patterns of organization and content. Since the purpose of the volume (as of the series) is to furnish information about, and to provoke discussion of, efforts to improve the social studies curriculum, practically no attention is paid to the "typical" introductory courses in economics, political science, sociology, and the like. Emphasis is placed on those programs which are more energetically dedicated to the "general education" ideal. Programs which were described in the McGrath study in 1948 are not duplicated in this volume.

Descriptions of programs are grouped in five categories: those in which the historical approach is predominant and whose proponents believe that basic to an understanding of the present is a rather full grasp of the past; the present problems approach, in which emphasis is on the current; the combination historical background and contemporary affairs approach; the problems approach, in which the emphasis is on the process of problem solving; and finally, a category of "untraditional" approaches, of which the most unique is a bio-social core. Actually, no one of the categories is exclusive; each contains many elements of the others.

*Skills in Social Studies,* edited by Helen McCracken Carpenter, is the Council's latest yearbook. Despite expressed allegiance to skill development as a goal of social studies instruction, instruction in skills is too often limited to the more obvious skills or does not allow sufficiently for progressive development of skills as students mature and move through the school program.

The yearbook deals with the following skills: critical thinking (including locating, gathering, organizing, and evaluating information) to which three chapters are devoted; reading and listening skills, speaking and writing skills, interpreting maps and globes, interpreting materials presented in graphic form, developing a sense of time and chronology, and participating in group undertakings. Each chapter was prepared by a regional team which was composed of representatives of the different school levels so that successive stages of skill development might be treated appropriately as parts of an integrated whole.

In general, each chapter begins with a discussion of the nature of the skill and moves next to suggestions for teaching the skill at the various school levels, in different contexts, and at increasingly higher levels of difficulty. In addition to its inclusiveness, the book's merit is in its specificity; it does not exhort and generalize but is down to earth and practical. This volume should unquestionably be in the social studies teacher's possession. There are no substitutes for it.

The National Council for the Social Studies and the Joint Council on Economic Education are engaged in a joint venture which will eventually result in perhaps five resource units on economic life. The first of these, *A Teachers Guide to World Trade,* has just appeared. Lengthy and inclusive, it contains a sixty-page analysis of the problem of world trade by Sylvia Stone, economist for the Committee for Economic Development, and an equally long section on teaching aids, materials, activities, and the like, prepared by Julian Aldrich and associates. Though useful primarily to the social studies teacher in

the secondary school, it contains some features which will be of value to the teacher of the upper elementary grades.

For most teachers of teen-agers *The Individual and His World* (tentative title) will be a gold mine. Prepared by G. Robert Carlsen of the University of Texas and Richard Alm of the University of Hawaii, both of whom are specialists in adolescent literature, it offers first a discussion of the merits of using imaginative literature and biography as aids in concept-building. This is followed by sections on selecting reading material for adolescents, building classroom libraries, stimulating reading, and utilizing the results of reading. The bulk of the book consists of annotations of almost 500 works of imaginative literature and biography, grouped in twenty categories, such as personal adjustment, family life, religion, conservation, public opinion, industrial strife, delinquency, and other topics and/or problems commonly taught in social studies. The annotations are keyed so that the teacher will know whether the book was written especially for teen-agers or for adults. This volume should be of tremendous help to the teacher who wishes to employ literature in bringing meaning to social concepts. Most of us would agree, for example, that one can usually get a much more realistic understanding of problems of family living by reading such books as *Life With Father* and *Mama's Bank Account* than from an entire textbook on the family.

As part of its effort to further international understanding Unesco has held a series of seminars dealing with the social studies, especially history. Out of these seminars have come several publications. Most interesting of these, in the writer's opinion, is *History, Geography and Social Studies: A Summary of Programmes in Fifty-three Countries.* Would you like to know what is taught to six-year-old children in Viet-Nam or Lebanon or to the sixteen-year-old in Denmark? You'll find it here, in tabular form, and though the descriptions are brief, running sometimes only to a dozen words, they are revealing nevertheless. In addition to this information about the social studies in public or state-aided schools there are, for each country, figures indicating the number of hours per week devoted to social studies instruction, and, for some countries, brief summaries of other educational data and references to sources.

Two other related Unesco documents contain little that is not already known to teachers who have done a reasonable minimum of reading about their field, but they are significant in that they represent an effort by teachers from many countries to reach common ground in teaching for international understanding as well as in the improvement of social studies curriculums and methods.

The first of these, *History Textbooks, and International Understanding,* by J. A. Lauwerys, contains as one might expect, a discussion of biases and distortions which have been perpetuated in textbooks, a brief delineation of principles and facts of international understanding which should be emphasized, and a number of suggestions for improvement of history textbooks at both elementary and secondary levels. Perhaps the only part which will be really new to most readers is Chapter III, entitled, "International Cooperation in Textbook Improvement," in which are sketched the various official and unofficial efforts which have been made in our century to encourage greater objectivity about other countries in textbooks and thereby to promote international understanding.

The most interesting parts of *Suggestions on the Teaching of History,* by C. P. Hill, are Chapters 4, 5, and 6, in which are sketched recommendations for the history curriculum for children in four age groups: 7 to 10, 11 to 12, 12 to 15, and 15 to 18. For children from seven to ten years of age it is suggested that local and family history, prehistory, biography, and themes from social life be the basis of the history program. Children of eleven and twelve should begin the systematic study of their national history. National history, with "an international background and an international spirit" should be the focus for youth of twelve to fifteen. For those from fifteen to eighteen the following are listed as possibilities: continued study of national history, world history, intensive study of one or two periods of rapid change, modern history from the late 1700's, or contemporary history and current affairs.

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(°tentative title)

**Edwin R. Carr, University of Colorado.**

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**THOMPSON—WRITING**

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these movements, Jerry was able to do excellent writing of single letters. He had never used pencils, crayons, or scissors before starting to school as many of the other children had. When he started in the first grade, he would stand and wait expecting the teacher to put all his wraps on him. In the second grade, he wanted someone to put his overshoes on him. Jerry's printing improved, but the problem of getting him to do more for himself was never completely solved. The child who has always been waited upon is handicapped when he finds himself in a situation where it is necessary to do things for himself. Further proof that Jerry was not lacking in physical coordination was evidenced by the graceful way he handled himself in square dancing. The problem was the difficult one of changing the mental attitude he had of himself, the attitude that he could not do things that other people did.

## HERE AND THERE

Invite a man with a scythe to come and demonstrate to your social studies class that boys had to learn skills in order to eat in 1760. There probably won't be any grain to cut, but long grass on the baseball diamond will serve.

Desks fastened down to the floor, fasten down the children, their minds, and the whole curriculum; and note that word *down.*

Never let a classroom stay undecorated while there are colored crayons and wrapping paper.

The art class is all too frequently the only hour of the day when the harassed student can relax and ponder on his relationship to school and the world; the only time except gymnasium when he does not have to sit still and listen to someone else. How many of us as teachers, after an institute session, have gone away resolved never to lecture again only to go back to our timeworn easy methods in spite of our good resolutions.

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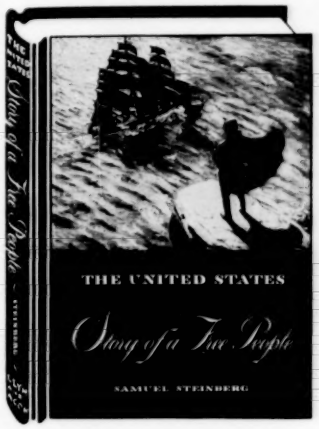


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